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BASIC
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OF
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TEACHING

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BASIC PRINCIPLES OF STUDENT TEACHING

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Preface

THE increasing demand for teachers is twofold. First, more teachers are urgently needed because of the ever-increasing number of children to be educated. Second, the public is demanding better-prepared teachers for today's schools. This book, dealing as it does with one of the most important aspects of teacher education, is based upon the concept that the preparation of teachers is truly a professional task. Teachers are measured by their ability to practice their profession successfully; they must have control of the knowledge and principles upon which their practice is based. Adequate control of knowledge and principles is developed in students through planned experiences under capable guidance and direction. A student-teaching experience which is effective must be a co-operative venture involving the student, the supervising teacher, and the representatives of the institutions which make provision for the program. *Basic Principles of Student Teaching* is directed primarily to the student teacher and indirectly to the supervising teacher and the institutional personnel involved.

The skills, competencies, and understandings embodied in the Principles set forth in this book are those which all teachers must have if they are to be effective in their teaching, regardless of the grade level at which they teach or the field in which they specialize. Teachers of the primary, intermediate, upper, or high school grades are guided and directed by the same basic principles of teaching and learning. Just as there are basic principles of teaching, so are there basic principles of *learning to teach*, for learning to teach is as much a process of learning as is learning any other skill or process.

The Principles of this book are listed consecutively in numerical order for ease of reference; they have been grouped under appropriate headings represented by chapter titles. The principles of student teaching included in the text have been illustrated

through the use of many everyday occurrences in actual situations. Some of the examples have emerged from the experiences of the authors. Others have been contributed by some of the thousands of students and supervising teachers who have engaged in student-teaching experiences. In deference to the many persons concerned, it has not always seemed wise to denominate in each illustration.

In organizing the book, the authors have constantly attempted to keep in mind those factors which will make the materials more useful to the students and teachers. It is suggested that considerable time be devoted to a thorough study of the "Action Approaches," which have been developed to give direction to the study of certain problems. Student teaching is essentially a learning activity. Since learning is an active process, and takes place through the activity and experience of the learner (the student teacher in this instance), student teaching must be an *action* program. Through the study of the "Action Approaches," the thinking of the reader will be oriented to the concepts presented in the accompanying chapters.

One of the foremost concerns of the instructor and the student should be the means through which the principles of student teaching may be made meaningful in actual situations. "Action Pointers" are provided which will be of value to both the individual and the group in translating into action the ideas embodied in the various chapters.

The problems and exercises presented at the end of each chapter are designed to assist the student in moving from theory into action and to help in evaluating the progress of the students.

Acknowledgment is made to the many persons who have contributed to the ideas and concepts set forth in this book. Special appreciation is expressed to the following persons for their assistance in collecting and assembling materials and information and for their help in the preparation of the final manuscript: Mrs. Nona B. Adams, Mrs. Elizabeth D. Dickey, Mrs. Ollie R. Hawkins, Dr. N. C. Turpen, Dr. Herbert Spitzer, Dr. Helen Reed, Mrs. Fanny Lowe, and Dr. J. B. White. Appreciation is also expressed to the publishers and authors who have generously granted permission to quote from their publications.

H.P.A. F.G.D.

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Creating A Setting for Student Teaching

STUDENT teaching should be considered by the prospective teacher to be different from other college courses as usually conceived. That is to say, the student of teaching should not approach the experience of student teaching by expecting to attend formal classes in which the usual lecture, laboratory, or recitation activities take place, and in which textbook assignments are made and learned and then repeated from memory. Absent from modern functional student teaching is the usual dependence of student upon instructor for planning the course, outlining material to be learned, assigning lessons and laboratory experiments, hearing recitations, conducting discussions, and testing the students' accomplishment.

Modern student teaching demands an almost diametric approach by the student, because it is an entirely different activity from the type just described. A functional program of student teaching offers a challenge to the student teacher of acquiring an understanding of the fundamental teaching-learning process, a knowledge of the problems of actual teaching, and a mastery of the skill of directing the learning of boys and girls. The contemporary student of teaching meets such a challenge through a positive orientation involving his attitude toward teaching in general, his concept of student teaching, and his activities as a student. He takes the initiative in planning, outlining, and conducting various activities rather than expecting the supervising teacher or college co-ordinator of student teaching to as-

sume all such responsibility. He is, or he should be, a mature student who recognizes some of his important needs as a prospective teacher and reveals them to his instructors. Moreover, he assumes the responsibility for seeing that his needs, whether felt or revealed, are satisfied by participating fully in various types of activities designed for or initiated by him.

1. Teacher Education is a Long-Term Experience.

Although various advocates of the "one-shot" approach to teacher education appear from time to time, serious students of teacher preparation recognize that experiences in teacher education are most effective when developed in a continuous sequence predicated on increasing understandings. The preference for long-term programs is in part the result of recent research projects in psychology which have pointed toward the advantage of spaced learning.

Most programs of teacher preparation have been developed as a gradual introduction to the problems and processes of teaching. New understandings are acquired as a result of previous insight and learnings, and all curricular experiences aim toward the culminating and integrating experiences in actual student teaching. If the prospective teacher is to gain the broader point of view necessary for successful teaching, it would seem advisable to create opportunities for him to develop sociological and psychological insights, a knowledge of procedures of teaching, and numerous other abilities and skills. Although it is extremely important that these skills and understandings be closely inter-related, still it is virtually impossible to crowd the development of all of them into one semester—or even one year—of college work. Furthermore, teacher education cannot and must not be viewed as the "frosting" which can be added to the "cake" after the liberal arts program has been completed. The most effective programs are those which relate and integrate professional education and the liberal arts, permitting each to supplement the other while the teacher is developing.

Although there are numerous patterns for teacher-education programs, the most successful and most soundly constructed programs usually introduce professional experiences at the freshman or sophomore levels; thus prospective teachers may have ample opportunities to develop understandings permitting maximum use of all courses and activities. Teaching is a continuous series of relationships; only when students are able to develop relationships in their own programs, can they become fully cognizant of the significance of such an experience.

2. Student Teaching Is a Professional Experience.

The professional experience of student teaching is designed to demonstrate educational theory in practice and aid the stu-

dent to develop practical skill from the theory learned. It may be defined as a directed learning experience during which a student becomes increasingly responsible for guiding and directing a group of learners. This implies that the activity is essentially a teaching-learning situation in which the student teacher is truly regarded as a "student of teaching" by his "teacher"—the supervising teacher, or critic teacher, as he is sometimes called. Thus, student teaching is a very complex activity—as complicated as are teaching and learning—and its primary purpose is to facilitate the growth of the student through a professional learning experience.

Demonstrating the application of theory learned calls for a high degree of creativity on the part of both student and supervising teacher. Activities and experiences included in the teaching program must be carefully chosen, with attention focused upon the fact that the student teacher is a "student of teaching"—a learner. Variety and flexibility are necessary to ensure provision for individual differences of students. Initiative and originality may be encouraged through a multiphased program of work with boys and girls. Continuity and unity of experience tend to integrate the different phases of the work as the student progresses. However, even though the program of student teaching is planned primarily for the student teacher, it must also consider the welfare of the pupils who are to be taught by him. Finally, the program strives to build a wholesome professional attitude by considering the readiness of the student for the experience of teaching and through applying democratic processes in dealing with him.

3. The Primary Aim of Student Teaching Is to Help Student Teachers Become Self-directive.

To prescribe rigid formulations for the student to follow can be a threat to development and usually results in mediocre or inferior teaching. Such a program of student teaching assumes that each new situation which confronts the student as teacher will, in the last analysis, be no more than a duplicate of previous ones. In reality, each teaching-learning situation in his future work will be different. Even for the same group of children, each learning experience changes each pupil and leaves him a slightly different person.

The truly functional program of student teaching affords an ideal opportunity for directing student teachers toward the development of self-analysis and self-improvement as teachers and as students, thereby promoting discovery of their strengths, as teachers and revealing how to capitalize upon them. Most individuals perform some tasks better than others because certain abilities are stronger, and they attempt and enjoy most those which they do best. As early as possible, then, the student

Basic Principles of Student Teaching

teacher needs to discover his greatest assets for teaching, because these strengths will become the focal points of his program and enhance his success.

On the other hand, neither must shortcomings which interfere with progress be ignored. Analysis of the weak points of teaching is to be made in as skillful a manner as discovery of strengths. The supervising teacher may promote more ready acceptance of the situation by letting the student apply his own adverse criticism, rather than that offered by another, no matter how tactful the presentation. Weaknesses should not be avoided, glossed over, or hidden by either supervising teacher or student; rather, both should face and attack the weak points in a frank and objective manner. With the help of the supervising teacher, the student may discover unrecognized latent strengths among some of his weak points.

Weaknesses may frequently be more conspicuous than strengths. For this reason, it is sometimes difficult to find, and hence capitalize upon, the strong points of a student teacher; however, recognition of these is important and will acquaint him with the fact that the whole experience of student teaching is being approached in a professional manner. Another reason for emphasizing strengths is that the student may not know his potential abilities or be aware of the good teaching he may be doing. When ability and good work are recognized and reasons given for their high appraisal, and when application of what is good is made in a variety of situations, the student teacher is then able to broaden the use of his skill and to find ways of improving his teaching.

Good students have no desire to be told constantly what to do, and persist in wanting a supervising teacher who works with them on their problems, rather than one who merely gives orders or prescribes specifics. They want a program planned in terms of sound principles of teaching which lays the foundation for self-activated growth. The best program of student teaching, then, aids students to become self-directive.

4. Student Teaching Develops a Sound Philosophy of Education.

There is really no need for the statement of an educational viewpoint to be complicated or abstruse, for nearly all concepts of modern education can be expressed in language so simple as to be easily understood by all who participate in the work of the school. The first step for the student teacher in formulating his philosophy of education is to develop a satisfactory definition of education, this being the cornerstone of educational belief. A clear understanding of the meaning of education is the only sound and continually helpful guide to the development of a useful philosophy of education.

Any adequate comprehension of education begins with the basic processes involved in the interaction of the individual with his environment. The interaction of individual with environment as a fundamental element in the educative process presents a twofold aspect; first, as the adjustment of the individual to his environment and second, as the re-creation or reconstruction of the environment by the individual. Heretofore, there has been an almost universal tendency among educators to define education in terms of the first aspect, the adjustment process. From this point of view, education is a process by which the inner conditions of the person become adjusted to the outer existing pattern of elements. Certainly there is an obvious need for the individual to learn to adapt himself to existing conditions; indeed, the impinging vicissitudes of a rigorous environment upon the individual have made it imperative that he adapt in order to survive. And, as the maturity of the individual increases and the complexity of the world in which he lives becomes greater, the services and responsibilities of the adaptive functions of education are increased in proportion.

All of life, however, is not to be found in giving way before the exactions of the surrounding world. The creative genius of man has not been content to accept the world as he finds it. He continually strives to reconstruct his environment so as to meet his needs better and satisfy his desires. The results of his efforts have not been limited to the physical aspects of his life; they have greatly affected his social environment as well. The changes he has affected and the complexities he has created have in themselves acted as stimuli for further activity. The greatness of man's conquest of his world and the strength of his potential for effecting still further change are evidence of the emphasis which needs to be placed upon the reconstructive aspect of the educative process.

No concept of education can be complete without recognition of the values inherent in, and evolving from, the educative process. The modern conception of educational values is twofold as was the interaction concept just described. The concept of interaction holds that changes will take place in both individual and environment. Such changes will be quantitative and qualitative in nature, and to the extent that they include quality, values are involved. Insofar as the process of education develops the individual as a person in all aspects, the quality of the change is positive and the individual has profited. To the extent that the process may have improved the environment in physical and social respects, the nature of these values would again be positive and society have benefited. Clearly, then, there are two aspects of educative values: first, those involving educational value individual in nature; second, ones including value of a social character.

Because value accrues to society from the operation of the educative process, society has created the school and charged it with the formal task of producing acceptably functioning members of the social group. The established patterns of democratic thought and behavior are the goals toward which the efforts of the American school are directed. Included among the ends to be achieved are the knowledge, skills, understandings, ideas, attitudes, appreciations, loyalties, and aspirations approved by the group. These will be limited and determined primarily by two criteria: the fundamental philosophy of the American society, and the activities of the individual deemed necessary for successful living in the social group. Achievement by the school is further limited by the fact that it cannot be responsible for the total education of the child, but only the more formal part. Many social agencies and forces, including particularly the home and the church, contribute.

Planning of an educational program therefore cannot be done on the assumption that the school is the only important institution. One may ask whether it is possible for the school to undertake the total education of the child. Can it be expected to be father, mother, and minister, as well as teacher? Does it have the financial and other physical resources to attempt such a role? Does its personnel have the extensive training and infinite wisdom necessary to perform the task of total education? Rather, the role of the school must be differentiated from, though related to, the work of all the agencies of society which influence the thought and behavior of the individual. Only thus can the school perform its own functions effectively. Hence, the definition of the role of the school and of the tasks it is to perform becomes an important part of the student teacher's perspective.

The philosophy of the student teacher should be ambitious, but it must also be practicable. It should enlarge his scope and indicate methods and procedures in advance of current practice. At the same time, the tasks outlined and the goals determined must be capable of achievement within the framework of a real situation. This does not mean accepting existing limits as permanent barriers to progress or using such restrictions as excuses for failure to develop and put into practice the best methodology possible. On the contrary, it suggests at once a common-sense approach to achieving improvement in terms of existing conditions and a challenge to expand the existing limits. And finally, the stated beliefs must impel the student to provide a teaching-learning situation helpful to all pupils, not merely to those who are gifted, or who can deal successfully with academic abstractions. The student teacher must believe strongly enough in the educational principles he has accepted that he will practice them daily in his work with boys and girls.

PROBLEMS

1. Obtain from other institutions of higher education their programs for the preparation of teachers. Study these programs and make comparisons with your own program. Make constructive suggestions for the improvement of your program.
2. Define in detail the terms: interaction, human relations, theory, practice, learning, and teaching.
3. Develop a check list of desirable traits for a teacher and then evaluate yourself in terms of the check list. Ask other students to evaluate you in terms of the items.
4. Write your own philosophy of education, stressing the purposes and goals of education and the channels through which these may be achieved.
5. Study the philosophies of education as developed by various eminent persons and compare and contrast their beliefs with those which you have developed.

Preparing for Student Teaching

PREPARATION for any field of work should be a serious undertaking. It has significant implications not only for the individual immediately affected by the process, but as well for the status of the occupation concerned and for the society served by such vocation.

5. Contact with Educational Problems Is Distributed throughout the Entire Period of Professional Preparation.

There are evidently two major choices regarding teacher education today. The first is to continue the framework of professional classes in which an attempt is made to tell prospective teachers how to teach, or to tell them "about" teaching. The other choice is to change the framework of professional education to include such experiences as demonstrations, field trips and field work, teaching responsibilities, and other contacts with the community and with boys and girls.

Student teaching is such a sizable undertaking in so short a span that all preparation possible is helpful. This fact has led to a realization that theory and practice cannot be separated in courses leading to student teaching. Various types of observation and participation should be included in the first pre-professional course. The more experiences of this type provided, the better the program will meet the multitude of needs of the students.

6. Adequate Preparation for Student Teaching Includes an Understanding of the Support and Control of Schools.

If the student teacher is to perform effectively and receive maximum benefit from his experiences, it is important that he understand the background of the system of education in the nation and in his own state. Every training institute should collect such information and make it available to the student teachers.

7. Effective Student Teaching Is Based upon Student Participation.

Student teaching becomes functional only when the work of the student is planned, organized, and directed as a learning exercise in a teaching-learning situation. (The nature of the learning process is described in Principle 28, Chapter V.) Here it is postulated that the student teacher does not learn unless his behavior changes. His behavior is changed by experiences which he undergoes, and these result from his interaction with the environment. Functionally speaking, student teaching becomes the experience resulting from the interaction of the student teacher with an environment designed to produce changes in his behavior aimed toward becoming a teacher. And what the student does is more important than what his supervising teacher does. This is to say, the student teacher learns to teach primarily through his own activity, and the importance, therefore, of what the supervising teacher does is determined by what he is able to get the student to do.

Such a program does not stem from the efforts of but one person but is the result of co-operative thinking and action. When plans are made, they will be placed into operation primarily by the student teacher. Certainly, the supervising teacher is active in the process, but his activity is directed mainly at getting action on the part of the student. Plans become formative only as the student teacher attempts to follow them in his teaching. An effective program of student teaching is more of a student activity directed by the supervising teacher than it is a process planned and conducted by the supervising teacher and practiced by the student.

Functional guidance of student teaching emphasizes the theory that people learn through trial and error. The student teacher's adequacy in new situations will be enhanced by tactful attention to his making a mistake and consideration of a way for correcting it. The student wants to know how to overcome his difficulties, but he does not wish to be blamed for them; he wants a chance to "save his face." He appreciates frank discussion of his mistakes and problems, but, by being permitted to "save face," he retains a measure of self-respect. The most effective student-teaching experience is one in which the student

participates in a program based upon developing a better understanding of the purposes of education and the principles of good teaching and learning.

8. Student Teaching Provides for Students of Different Personalities and Abilities.

No supervising teacher would deny that the boys and girls he teaches are different from one another according to many separate aspects. Professional preparation has admonished that the unique needs-pattern of the individual pupil should become the educational focal point. Curiously enough, however, there is a tendency among educational theorists and practitioners to fail to make the logical application of the same reasoning to teachers, whether in training or on the job. Certainly, if pupils are different from one another, teachers and student teachers also differ, and do so possibly to an even greater degree than children, because maturity allows more time for differences to develop.

In planning for student teaching, it is quite necessary to take into consideration the variations in the growth needs of the students. The mere recognition that students' needs differ, however, is not enough. How they differ must necessarily be known if the supervising teacher is to bring about changes in students and their teaching which in turn will produce better teaching-learning situations for the children they teach. The typical growth needs of student teachers are summarized in the following general terms :

1. To grow in social understanding.
2. To gain an acquaintance with boys and girls and an understanding of their social, physical, mental, and moral growth and development.
3. To formulate a sound philosophy of education which relates the roles of teacher, school, and other educational agencies in modern society.
4. To learn how to provide and direct learning experiences.
5. To learn how to locate and utilize community resources.
6. To develop sound teaching methods and techniques.
7. To learn how to work democratically with others.
8. To learn how to select and use learning materials.
9. To learn to evaluate personal teaching competency.
10. To understand the status, problems, ethics, and organizations of the teaching profession.

In taking account of individual differences and in determining the growth needs of student teachers, the supervising teacher will need a volume of information about the students. For example, the supervising teacher will need to have data concerning health, training, academic achievement, intelligence, professional and nonprofessional experience, and cultural background. Moreover, the supervising teacher will want to know something of the student's out-of-school interests and activities. The hobbies and interests to which a student devotes his leisure reveal

much of the real person and many times open avenues for the development of teaching skills.

A convenient way of compiling such information is to maintain a cumulative personnel record for each student. A copy of the "Student, Teacher Information Blank" (included as Appendix B of this volume) is an example of the kind of record indicated. The record should be adapted by the supervising teacher to meet his needs in working with a particular student teacher.

Student teaching has to be diversified so that it will meet the needs of the variety of students it serves. It is true there are some needs common to all student teachers; to meet such needs, certain phases of professional education are designed in the nature of "common learnings." Each student, however, has a number of individual needs, as indicated, and the program must be so conceived that diversification and individualization are possible. Only when student teachers are understood and accepted can they learn to understand and accept themselves and the children they teach.

9. The Faculty of the School Is Included in the Planning and Operation of the Student Teacher Program.

Various plans for providing student-teaching experiences are in operation in different teacher-education institutions. It is the responsibility and obligation of the teacher-education institution to make proper provision for such experience. Such a task is a fundamental part of the preparation for student teaching. The responsibility, however, does not end with institutional preparation, because the student teacher himself has a major responsibility to prepare for such experiences.

While it is true that many elementary grades and some of the core-curriculum programs in the junior and senior high schools are self-contained to a major extent, every teacher in a modern system of education relies upon other teachers and upon the various services offered in connection with the educational programs. Even though a student teacher may intend to teach only fifth grade or mathematics or English, he still must have an understanding of the related services which are a part of the school in which he works. For example, he needs a good understanding of the guidance program, physical education, and the co-curricular activities carried on in the school. Preparation for student teaching should include such experiences as visiting in classes outside the major field, attending athletic, dramatic, or musical events in school situations, and working with various aspects of guidance and counseling programs.

When the school personnel and student teacher understand that student teaching is an all-school experience, the program of

directed teaching becomes a meaningful and profitable period of preparation.

10. Pupils in the Classroom and Parents in the Community Need a Sound Knowledge of the Student-Teaching Program and Its Purposes.

Since student teachers work with pupils, it is imperative that both parents and pupils have an understanding of the purposes and procedures involved in student teaching. Too often parents and pupils receive the erroneous impression that a student-teaching program means that the regular teacher is relieved of all teaching duties and that the student teacher "takes over." Through such misunderstandings, parents and pupils sometimes become antagonistic toward programs of student teaching. Those responsible for the program itself may make use of such media as letters, bulletins, conferences, and forums in the process of acquainting pupils and parents with the program of student teaching.

11. A Modern Program of Student Teaching Safeguards the Interests of Pupils.

The major criticism of student teaching which is raised by parents centers about the occasional exploitation of pupils. Such malpractice may be the case in those educational situations where supervising teachers and student teachers have not been properly oriented to the more modern concepts of student teaching.

While it is true that student teaching is essentially designed to prepare teachers for full-time teaching responsibilities, the pupils in the practice classrooms must never suffer. It has been pointed out that under the best conditions the pupils actually benefit from the presence of, and help given by, student teachers. On the other hand, if the program is not properly planned, so that responsibilities between the regular teacher and student teacher are predetermined and distributed, the pupils may not receive the greatest good from the student teaching.

It is not considered sound practice to give the student teacher full responsibility during the first weeks of his directed teaching experience. Actually, to give him many responsibilities may prove to be harmful to both student teacher and pupils. This caution emphasizes the importance of "readiness for teaching"—a principle which should be observed by both student and supervising teachers; otherwise the pupils conceivably might suffer by being subjected to a teacher who is not prepared for actual teaching duties. Moreover, it is equally poor practice to permit or to urge the student to carry the full teaching load for a prolonged period of time, even when he has reached the point at which he can be given full responsibility.

Every precaution should be taken in preparing the student for teaching so as to be certain he understands the importance of

the pupils as individuals and the necessity for respecting them as persons who learn. If all of those concerned with the student-teaching program focus their attention upon the welfare of the children, the pupils will profit by the program and enjoy the benefits of richer instructional experiences.

12. Effective Student Teaching Is Done under Typical School Conditions.

The prospective teacher must be prepared to step into a contingent teaching situation without having to make many adjustments because of the student-teaching experience he has had. But, since some adjustment is always necessary, his directed teaching experiences should have taught him to be creative, resourceful, and interested in experimentation—such elements should certainly characterize every student-teaching situation.

Obviously, there will be certain needs of student teachers which may demand special school conditions, such as the need to learn how to teach children handicapped by speech or hearing deficiencies. But the student who is preparing to teach the usual elementary or secondary groups should have access to a typical school in terms of size, location, school population, financial support, and teaching personnel.

The promising teacher-to-be is interested in experimentation. Sometimes, however, problems may be created by having had all of one's preparation for teaching in a school that is extremely experimental in its program. Many dissatisfactions and poor adjustments can result from radical experimental training experiences. At the other extreme, school situations, which are dull and unchallenging are also productive of problems of adjustment. To be effective, student teaching must be conducted in school and classroom situations which are typical, rather than atypical, in nature.

PROBLEMS

1. In co-operation with your supervising teacher or with other student teachers, make a list of community resources (both human and natural) which will be of value to you in your student-teaching experience.
2. From information which you obtain from your supervising teacher and others make an organizational chart (similar to the one in this chapter) indicating the relationships which exist among various component parts of the school system in which you are working.
3. Select a particular problem which in your experience has been solved by group participation. Reconstruct the steps which were followed in the solution of the problem and evaluate the effectiveness of the procedure.

4. Write an article which would be suitable for newspaper publication describing the student-teaching program of which you are a part and indicating the values which accrue to the community as a result of this program.
5. Describe in a brief article what you would consider "desirable," "adequate," and "undesirable" conditions in which student teaching might take place. Take into consideration the physical facilities, the program of the school, the personnel of the school, and any other factors which you think are significant.

Beginning Student Teaching

BECAUSE student teaching is widely acknowledged as the most important aspect of the preparation of teachers, it is imperative that the student teacher have the best possible opportunity for a good start—a chance to adjust prior to the time he begins his real teaching. Of extreme importance to the student is an orientation period during which his activities are so gradually developed that he moves from one phase of his program to another without encountering any perceptible hurdles. In this way, the period of initiation becomes a kind of personalized introduction which gradually readies the student for full-time teaching. Student teachers' needs are as varied as those of any group of learners, and the law of readiness for learning operates as definitely for them in regard to learning to teach as it does in any other learning situation. For this reason, no foolproof, inflexible program of orientation can be determined; however, it is possible to provide beginning student teachers with basic knowledges and guiding principles which help them gain a better understanding of the situation in which they will work.

13. Student Teaching Begins Where Students Are.

Student teaching begins with the students' problems, not with those of the supervising teacher. It grows out of, and takes its direction from, the needs and interests of the students. The supervising teacher who holds himself above and beyond the students, looks down upon them, and urges them to reach up to his rarefied state of perfection will not do much for student teachers who need help—and all of them need guidance and direction of some

kind. Real assistance can be given only through an understanding of the actual problems faced by the students in their daily work of learning to teach. Miss Hargrave may be worried about getting the first graders to go to the lunchroom in good order. Mr. Groves may be unable to get some of the tenth grade biology group to bring their pencils to class. Unimportant as these needs may seem to be to the supervising teacher, they are the problems which the student teachers recognize. If first efforts are directed at meeting other needs recognized by the supervising teacher and considered more important, little more will be accomplished than frustration.

It has been said that the purpose of student teaching is not to "tell" students what to do but rather to help them learn what their problems are, to isolate and analyze these, and to find the best solutions. Only when student teachers comprehend their problems are they able to start work toward solving them. Thus, one of the initial responsibilities which the supervising teacher must assume is that of the determination of the areas in which student teachers are in greatest need of assistance. Many students are, at first, able to recognize no more than that their teaching efforts are not producing the desired results. In such situations, the supervising teacher must offer assistance, not by doing the whole job of pointing out the specific areas of trouble, but by helping the student teachers to comprehend their problems for themselves.

The way student teachers react to the efforts of supervising teachers to work with them has a profound influence upon the success of the student-teaching experience. Belief in the ability of student teachers to succeed and recognition of their problems result on their part in feelings of accomplishment, which in turn build self-confidence and security. Probably the first job, then, of the supervising teacher is to determine where the student is in his thinking with respect to need for help. Willing co-operation and active participation in the activities of the program of student teaching are most likely to result from such a beginning. The program is actually developed through providing the activities and experiences which will assist the student teachers to solve their recognizable problems. If, as is often the case, the students do not recognize their problems, the supervising teacher must help them to become cognizant of their needs.

14. Learning the General Organization of the School Is a First Step in Beginning Student Teaching.

The student teacher needs to know all that is possible about the school in which he will do his student teaching before his experience actually begins. Many of the arrangements for the orientation of the student will be made by the supervising teacher prior to the arrival of the former. For example, it is usually

assumed that the latter will have a place prepared for the student to put his personal belongings. Usually he will also have available the schedules of classes for the school; quite often a guide-book or handbook will be provided so the student teacher may learn the rules and regulations of the school as soon as possible. If such a manual is not available, one of the first conferences should be devoted to a discussion of such matters.

Another first step in the orientation of the student teacher to his new situation is to introduce him to pupils, other faculty members, staff workers, and parents. Such introduction should be made on the basis that he is a person who has a valuable contribution to make. Many schools, for example, shun the term "student teacher" in the introductions and merely present him as another teacher who will assist the regular teacher.

Other phases of the orientation of the student teacher will probably fall within the following list of activities:

1. The calendar for the semester and the year is provided and explained, so that the student teacher will know when certain holidays come, when various reports are due, and when special events are scheduled.
2. The daily schedule is explained in detail, so the student will understand such matters as the lunch schedule, bus schedule, library periods, physical education periods, and other special times.
3. The student teacher is given the opportunity to become familiar with the special equipment of the school, and should know where it is housed and how it may be scheduled for use. For example, he should know about the audio-visual materials and equipment and should understand the procedures involved in their use.
4. Attendance records and other types of records are explained to the student teacher. It is helpful if he has the opportunity to assume some responsibility for keeping attendance records as soon as familiarity with the activity justifies participation.
5. Students are familiarized with the placement of the rooms in the building as soon as possible, in order that they may take pupil groups from one place to another without confusion.
6. The various publications of the school are made available to the student teacher in order that he may familiarize himself with the activities of the school.

15. Understanding the Educational Point of View of the School Is Basic to Beginning Student Teaching.

Understanding the educational point of view of the school is one of the most important factors in assisting the student teacher to begin successfully. The student learns the beliefs to which the school subscribes by carefully observing accepted practices and by asking questions which will aid in understanding the philosophy of the program. Observations become more pointed through a study of the purposes and objectives established for the group or classes with which the student will work, and through an analysis of the course of study, the text books, and the supplementary materials which are used.

16. The Supervising Teacher and the Student Teacher Should Confer Prior to the Student's First Visit to the Class.

Undoubtedly the most important aspect of the beginning stage of student teaching is the initial conference between the supervising teacher and the student teacher. This conference can do much to dissipate tensions and to make the student realize that it is not an experience to be feared. It is certainly not fair either to the supervising teacher or to the student to begin the activities of directed teaching without a conference period in which the two become acquainted.

Other matters entering into the initial conference are concerned with the time for reporting each day, the time for completing the work, lunch periods, and other problems of scheduling. Certain matters which have been mentioned in preceding Principles will also serve as topics to be discussed in the conference period.

17. Beginning Activities Provide a Gradual Introduction to Teaching.

During the first days of student teaching, the assumption of responsibility for some routine classroom activities serves to help the student get acquainted both with the pupils and the mechanics of conducting the work, and to make him feel that he is now a part of the total program. In assuming these responsibilities, it is helpful to follow the suggestions of the supervising teacher for observing, taking notes, and reporting to the teacher. Whatever the exact procedure for beginning actual work, the student teacher is expected to find worthwhile, helpful things to do, whether housekeeping or other routine jobs. Through performing such activities, he earns his place in the group, gains confidence in his ability as a teacher, and develops skill in performing teaching tasks, however elementary. The value of initiative and resourcefulness cannot be overemphasized; the alert student anticipates opportunities to serve.

The student teacher, in order to become acquainted with the pupils and their needs, will wish to study their cumulative records. It should be emphasized, however, that the records are confidential in nature and nothing found in them should be discussed with anyone except the supervising teacher. Thorough understanding of the total situation is basic to forming and expressing opinions about pupils, teachers, and the school. Free discussion with the supervising teacher or other responsible staff members is helpful in gaining understanding; but gossip is not an acceptable part of professional behavior.

Another activity which may prove helpful to the student of teaching during the early days of his work is the grading of papers—pupil written work. If the first papers are graded in co-operation with the supervising teacher, the student can familiarize himself with the marking system which is familiar to the pupils.

Moreover, the student learns how various data are recorded, and how such information may be used in planning subsequent assignments, in reporting to parents, and in conferring with a pupil about his progress. Analysis of the papers assists the student in discovering what the pupils do not understand and in what areas the "major mistakes" are most prevalent.

18. Curricular Problems Are Introduced Early in the Student Teaching Experience.

The student teacher and the supervising teacher should understand quite clearly that routine matters must not consume the entire time of the student during the first weeks. As was indicated (in the discussion of Principle 15 of this chapter), one of the first steps to be taken by the student teacher is to familiarize himself with the courses and the supplementary materials. In addition, the student will profit by closely observing the teacher's methods of questioning and the results obtained, the making of assignments, and the manner in which new topics are introduced. These objectives will be beneficial in giving him a good idea of the way in which the program of study is developed.

Familiarity with the teaching-learning situation places the student of teaching in a position to note the functional grouping of children in the class, the roles the pupils assume, and the interaction among the group. Observation of how the various groups are formed, what their purposes are, and what they are doing enables the student to get the most from the valuable experience of participating in pupil planning sessions. Through these approaches, the student sees at firsthand the bases of pupil interests and comprehends more fully the nature of curricular problems and the importance of sound planning.

The student teacher soon recognizes the fact that there are many activities which are vitally associated with the business of school. Some of the activities are: recreation, study and library periods, field trips, clubs, student-council meetings, lunch periods, and parent-teacher meetings. These are as much a part of the total school program as are the actual daily lessons. It would be well for the student to be introduced to some activities as soon as possible so that he may associate himself with the ones which appeal to him most. Through participating in such activities, he soon gets the feel of the total program of the school and understands the functioning of the curriculum in its fullest sense.

19. The Student Teacher Uses Various Means to Become Acquainted with School, Home, and Community Activities.

The prospective teacher should become acquainted with correlated community activities which have some bearing upon the work of the school.

The parent-teacher conference at school is used by some schools as a device for informing both home and school of the progress and developmental problems of a child. If such conferences are customary, the student teacher should prepare himself to participate, upon the invitation of the supervising teacher. He may write a summary of the conference and contribute it to the cumulative record, keeping in mind that much of the desired information about a family may be secured through the conference.

The student teacher should avail himself of every opportunity to attend civic meetings that would help him gain a better understanding of problems, attitudes, modes, and customs. Public forums, concerts, entertainments, and other similar affairs can mean much to him in imparting a better understanding of the occupational situation. Certainly, the student teacher should be interested and active in every activity of the school, whether it be an athletic event or a musical or a dramatic presentation.

20. The Beginning Student Teacher Studies the Physical, Mental, and Social Development of the Individual Child and Groups of Children.

The process of getting acquainted with all of the pupils as quickly as possible is extremely important. Indeed, the study of children is a major responsibility of all teachers, regardless of the subject area or level of specialization.

Some student teachers will have had previous experiences in observing, recording, studying, and analyzing information about boys and girls. Again the principle of readiness is an important factor, for the student profitably begins his child-study activities at the point where his previous experiences would prove most relevant. In other words, child-study activities are best built upon the foundation of previous experiences. Regardless of the nature and extent of his earlier experiences, however, it will be necessary for the student teacher to understand the particular pupil group in order to teach them effectively. He will need to study his pupils as carefully as if he were the regular teacher, and, in so doing, he learns to apply techniques he will use in the future.

PROBLEMS

1. Develop a definitive list of problems which you feel you need to consider in your initial days as a student teacher.
2. Carefully read the materials which have been developed in the school in which you are working. Write a full semester's calendar of school activities, indicating special days and events of importance.
3. After you have reviewed the cumulative records for the pupils in one of your classes, list the pupils who appar-

ently have unusual problems. Review the impressions and interpretations with your supervising teacher.

4. During the first period of student teaching, select at least three pupils for careful observation with the thought in mind that you will compare their attitudes and performance with previous records. If you note any deviations from past history, attempt to determine what factors brought about the changes.



Understanding And Guiding Boys And Girls

GOOD teaching depends upon effective human relations between teacher and pupil. Human relations are effective only when teacher and pupil know, understand, and respect each other. If a teacher knew all the things he should about a pupil, he would then know how to interpret and explain what the pupil says and does. Becoming acquainted with boys and girls means knowing them as persons, feeling concern for their problems, and recognizing their interests, aptitudes, and needs. It means that the student of teaching is better able to deal with the factors which influence pupils' lives, which condition their learning, and which affect their behavior,

Effective teaching depends upon the teacher knowing much about the pupils he teaches. The results of research studies of the problem indicate rather clearly that the best teachers are those who know most about their pupils. More specifically, the studies show : (1) that the amount of knowledge a teacher possesses about pupils is directly related to the rapport he maintains with them, (2) that there is a positive relationship between teaching effectiveness and teacher-pupil relations, (3) that pupils in groups well known by the teacher learn more than those in other groups, and (4) that many teachers do not fully understand their pupils and fail to realize the importance of knowing them.

Children are important persons who must be known and understood by the student teacher hoping to advance a program of instruction for them. Learning to understand boys and girls means that the student will have much more in common with pupils than the mere subject matter he teaches them. To learn as much about boys and girls as he needs to know, the student will require many more facts about pupils than he ordinarily finds available in the average school situation. Obviously, during the relatively short period of student teaching, the student will not be able to collect all the information that he would like, or perhaps even all that he needs, relative to the pupils in his group. The main accomplishment then should be to learn the principal techniques of collecting, recording, analyzing, interpreting and employing the basic data about pupils. These techniques can then be applied and expanded in future teaching.

21. Essential Skills and Information Are Indispensable to Intelligent Understanding of Pupils.

The behavior of children and youth is caused, and the causes are not, usually, simple and easily understood but are more often complex and difficult to comprehend. In the first place, then, the student of teaching who learns to understand pupils thinks of their behavior as being caused. He understands that the causes are rooted to some extent in the experimental background of the pupil, that they are conditioned partly by environmental factors presently impinging upon the child, and that they are influenced also by the hopes, interests, and aspirations of the youngster—or, in other words, by the individual himself. The student teacher realizes that, through knowing, analyzing, and interpreting intelligently the three groups of elements just listed, he may understand the child's behavior. Further, he believes that in terms of his understanding of the child he may be enabled to provide the experiences necessary to produce desirable change. Such a point of view differs rather sharply with the more traditional notion that the control of the behavior of children and youth may be accomplished through "ironclad" disciplinary measures without analysis of causes.

A second element in learning to understand children is the recognition of the worth and dignity of each boy and girl. Democracy in the school means that the worth of the individual is respected regardless of his origin or present status with respect to race, ethnic background, religious belief, social position, or cultural advantages. Democracy in the classroom recognizes the worth of every pupil in light of his ability and achievement. The student teacher who respects the personality of the pupil helps him to achieve his maximum development, to overcome obstacles to his full self-realization, and to attain his destiny as a person—all, of course, with proper regard for the collective welfare of others. No pupil is assigned to an inferior status in the group because his

reading rate is low, his numbering skill is poor, his respect for proper leadership and authority is undeveloped, or his assumption of responsibility for his own actions is lacking. Respect for pupils' personalities prevents the student teacher from rejecting them for what they do, because he understands their behavior is caused, and he seeks to discover the causes in order to promote salutary change. This should not be interpreted to mean that the student teacher overlooks or condones undesirable behavior. On the contrary, he tries to determine what is causing the child to misbehave and to provide the conditions, experiences, and influences necessary to bring about wholesome change.

In the third place, the student teacher who learns to understand children recognizes the differences which exist among pupils and knows that no two of them are alike. The differences among pupils range from physical characteristics, which are easily recognized, to variable rates of becoming concerned with economic problems, social relationships, and citizenship responsibilities, which may be difficult for the student teacher to determine and analyze. As has been said, differences exist among pupils because of variations in biological and social background and hence in rates of physical, mental, social, and emotional development. Important contributing factors are: home environment, general experiential background, hereditary background, aesthetic opportunity, economic background, and type of home community. Each pupil is the product of a unique background, and for this reason no two individuals approach a new experience in exactly the same way. To realize that differences exist among children and youth is indeed important in understanding them, but it is equally—or more—essential to know the type and range of differences which may occur. The student who espouses the principle that no two pupils are alike accepts all pupils as unique individuals, each of intrinsic worth.

As a fourth point, the student teacher who understands children learns to recognize and appreciate what the "normal" child is. Perhaps an example will best illustrate the basic principle. Sue and Jay were members of a sixth grade class which had completed a standardized reading test. Sue's reading comprehension score was equal to the norm for the sixth grade, whereas Jay was comprehending at fifth grade level. The question is, should the teacher consider Sue's reading comprehension normal and Jay's sub-normal? The answer will depend upon the basis of interpreting the behavior of the child. Test norms indicate the average performance of a particular group—in this case, sixth grade children. Sue's reading comprehension may be considered normal because she is comprehending as well as the average sixth grader who took the test. The basis of interpreting Sue's behavior is to locate her on a scale based upon the performance of a particular group—sixth graders. Measured on the same basis, Jay's reading

comprehension would not be normal. In other words, one way of determining normality of behavior is to compare the activity of the individual with the performance of a group having some fundamental characteristic in common, such as children of the same chronological age or grade in school.

There is another very interesting and helpful basis for interpreting Jay's behavior. The question is raised, could Jay's reading comprehension be normal for **him**? The question may be answered positively, because the teacher can interpret on the basis of Jay himself. That is to say, the basis of interpretation can be shifted from the scale of performance of a particular group to the scale of behavior of the individual himself. In other words, it is normal for Jay to have poorer reading comprehension than Sue when Jay's behavior is the basis of comparison. On the other hand, Sue may easily be able to exceed the sixth grade norm if her performance is examined in light of her ability alone. In like manner, it is normal for some children to be more active than others; for some to read, write, spell, and figure on a lower level than others; for some to fulfill civic responsibilities in different ways from others; for some to arrive at explanations of the meaning of life and of the universe which differ from others'; and so on. The most successful student teacher understands the natural differences among children and youth and he does not accentuate the aspects involving these differences as he strives to help each pupil. He accepts pupils as they are, because his concept of normality is not based upon crystallized ideas of sixth grade performance, of eleventh grade curriculum, or of whatever.

Finally, the student teacher who is learning to understand boys and girls needs to know the more important factors about any particular pupil. Several sciences, including psychology, physiology, sociology, biology, anthropology, and education, contribute means to the collection and use of the information essential to a knowledge of a child. Certainly, the student cannot be expected to become an expert in each of the fields listed but he does need a working knowledge of the basic principles and tenets. The relationships between the principles of the different fields become important elements in the securing and intelligent use of the kinds of information needed in understanding the pupil. The data considered essential are discussed briefly in the following outline.

Health :

Information concerning the past and present health status of the pupil may indicate the need for remedial treatment or the cause of unsatisfactory mental, social, physical, and emotional development. Health status may be related to the difficulties some children have in making satisfactory adjustments and in succeeding in school. For example, faulty vision or hearing may

cause difficulty in reading, poor nutrition may make some pupils tire more easily than others, or improper dental development may be related to speech difficulties. Teachers should be alert to the possible relationship of learning difficulties and physical defects.

Personal and Social Adjustment :

From research it is known that pupils who are superior in some traits are usually superior in all ways. Inferior traits are not usually offset by other superiorities. There may be variance, however, among a pupil's traits; hence, no one trait is a certain index of other traits. Observation of children in many types of situations is, therefore, necessary. Informal chats may reveal incidence of maladjustment. It is well to note children who tend to rationalize, those who tend to withdraw, and those who become aggressive when their needs are not satisfactorily met. Aggressive pupils are more easily recognized than those who withdraw, because of the demand for attention. Special effort may be necessary to discover the pupils who tend to withdraw. Personality tests and sociograms may help to reveal problems and serve as bases for comparing results of observations.

Home and Family Background :

Exploration of a child's out-of-school life should be extensive, because many of the causes of behavior lie in that area. The following list of items is suggestive of the kinds of information which are important : race, nationality, and marital status of parents; education of parents; size of family; age of others in home who work; religious life in family; recreational life of family; adjustments of child in family group; economic status of family; and routine of family living. Reference is made in this chapter and in Principle 19, Chapter III, to various ways of securing the kinds of information listed. Securing such data requires skill and tact. Parental conferences and home visits must be carefully planned. Observation by the student of the supervising teacher performing such activities is most worthwhile. Revelation of confidential information to anyone, even to the parent or child involved, is forbidden.

School Achievement :

The past record of pupil may illuminate his present status. Thus, the marks earned in past elementary grades or in past subjects in high school help to reveal the nature of the pupil. Extremely good and poor marks may be especially indicative of the unusual traits of a boy or girl. Strengths and weaknesses are

also revealed by daily work over a period of time. Scores of periodic standardized and teacher-made tests are helpful indicators of achievement, as is a comparison of such scores with the record of daily work.

Abilities and Interests :

With experience, the student teacher may estimate a pupil's general abilities, but the results of intelligence and aptitude tests are usually more valid, reliable, and objective evidence of the individual's capacities. It is well to recognize the limitations of the tests in interpreting results and assisting the pupil to become self-directive. Moreover, abilities and interests are many times definitely related. Certainly pupils' interests determine the quality of their learning and hence become important avenues of motivation. Interests and hobbies often develop concomitantly, and a knowledge of them enables teachers to utilize them in teaching-learning situations.

Activities and Experiences :

The in-school and out-of-school activities and experiences of pupils may reveal aspects of their personalities which would be difficult to discover in other ways. The curricular and cocurricular activities in which pupils participate are usually related to special interests and aptitudes which they possess. The experiences a pupil has at home, in the community, and at work, may reveal personal needs, family conditions, or vital interests of the individual. Such experiences many times serve as ways for pupils to explore or try out vocational and occupational avenues which may lead to future development. Analysis of the activities and experiences which a pupil likes and dislikes, and of those in which he succeeds, has difficulty, or fails, may help in understanding him.

It is, of course, impossible to say, and difficult to know, which particular datum will prove most helpful or insignificant in the understanding of a pupil or his problem. Usually, the more the student teacher knows about the child, the better chance there is of understanding him.

22. Information about Pupils Comes from Various Sources.

Learning to understand boys and girls necessitates the student teacher's knowing not only the various types of essential information but also the sources from which the data are available. Moreover, he must develop the appropriate skills and techniques for studying children and youth and, as well, master the research methods that make possible the study of individuals. Using such techniques and methods, the student searches

among various sources of information for the ways in which boys and girls grow and develop and for the different factors which influence their behavior.

A good approach to the discovery of the needs of the children and youth of a community is to study the community itself.

It does not seem wise to propose a single method of investigation because of the differences among communities and the various kinds of problems which will face local investigators. Nevertheless, brief descriptions will be given of ways of looking into the needs of boys and girls.

A survey of school-community problems in light of the needs of children and youth may be planned and conducted in different ways. A representative committee of school people and lay citizens may be organized to direct the investigation. The group should truly represent every major agency in the community, including such organizations and agencies as schools, government groups, youth clubs and organizations, civic and service clubs, and religious groups. Another way of conducting the investigation is for different classes or school groups in areas such as science, health, or social studies to study various aspects of community life and living.

However the study of the community is organized and conducted, the investigation should indicate every aspect of the existing situation which relates to the educational needs of the children and youth served by the school. Some important areas are: the available resources of all kinds, the obstacles to school improvement, the economic condition, the status of the population, the problems of health, and the opportunities for boys and girls to live normal, well-rounded lives. Since all areas need not be studied simultaneously, provision must be made to consolidate the separate studies in order to prevent undesirable and unnecessary duplication and overlapping of effort.

Present-day teaching-learning situations, with their informality and opportunity for pupil participation, enable the student teacher to utilize personal observation in studying boys and girls. Observation is perhaps the most easily available and most fruitful technique for studying pupils. Through observation the student is able to observe physical and emotional irregularities, to determine social characteristics, and to analyze behavior problems.

Effective observation is not only directed, but it takes place in various situations over a period of time sufficient to supply significant information. Objectivity of observation may be increased by employing more than one observer and by supplementing findings by other methods of investigation.

The attitudes pupils display toward each other, and the acceptance or rejection of a pupil by others in his group, may

assist the student teacher in learning to understand the pupils he teaches. One very good way of studying the reactions of pupils to each other is through the application of sociometric techniques. Pupils are asked to write their names on a card and then to list the names of others in the group who are their very close friends, or whom they would choose as friends or work-partners. In addition, they are asked to list those whom they would not choose as work partners. By analyzing the information it is possible for the student teacher to know the pupils which each child in the group accepts and rejects, and thus to chart the whole pattern of acceptance and rejection in the group. The process is described in detail in the American Council on Education's **Helping Teachers Understand Children** (see Selected References). Not only can the student teacher visualize individual and group patterns of acceptance and rejection, but he can, further, diagram the reactions, as shown in Figure 2. Such diagrams are called sociograms and are very helpful in understanding relationships within a group. However, the student teacher must remember that children's choices change, and that a child will choose a friend today for one reason and reject him tomorrow for another. Consequently, any one sociogram will not show a permanent situation. Rather, the teacher will need to make frequent sociograms to keep abreast of the changing situation.

The suggested sociometric techniques are applicable to both the elementary and high school levels. While it may not be practicable to draw a sociogram for a large group, or even for every class group, the procedure is helpful in discovering problem cases in small classes, homeroom groups, or groups in need of special guidance.

The understanding of pupils and the solution to some problem cases involve the use of various tests. The preparation of the student teacher will doubtless include a knowledge of testing, and the selection and use of tests. This is discussed fully in Principles 61, 62, and 63 in Chapter X.

The excellent student teacher understands that home visits represent a most valuable potential avenue of teacher-parent and school-home relations. One poorly conducted home visit the students teacher will doubtless include a knowledge of testing, school and home, than all of the hard work it is possible to do with the child in the school. Learning to make home visits requires very careful preparation by the student teacher and very close guidance by the supervising teacher.

A very helpful source of information about a pupil is the various records that are kept during his entire school career. The records contain an accumulation of facts which have been preserved for future reference. Most of the kinds of data discussed in Principle 21 of this chapter are included in the permanent record system of practically all schools.

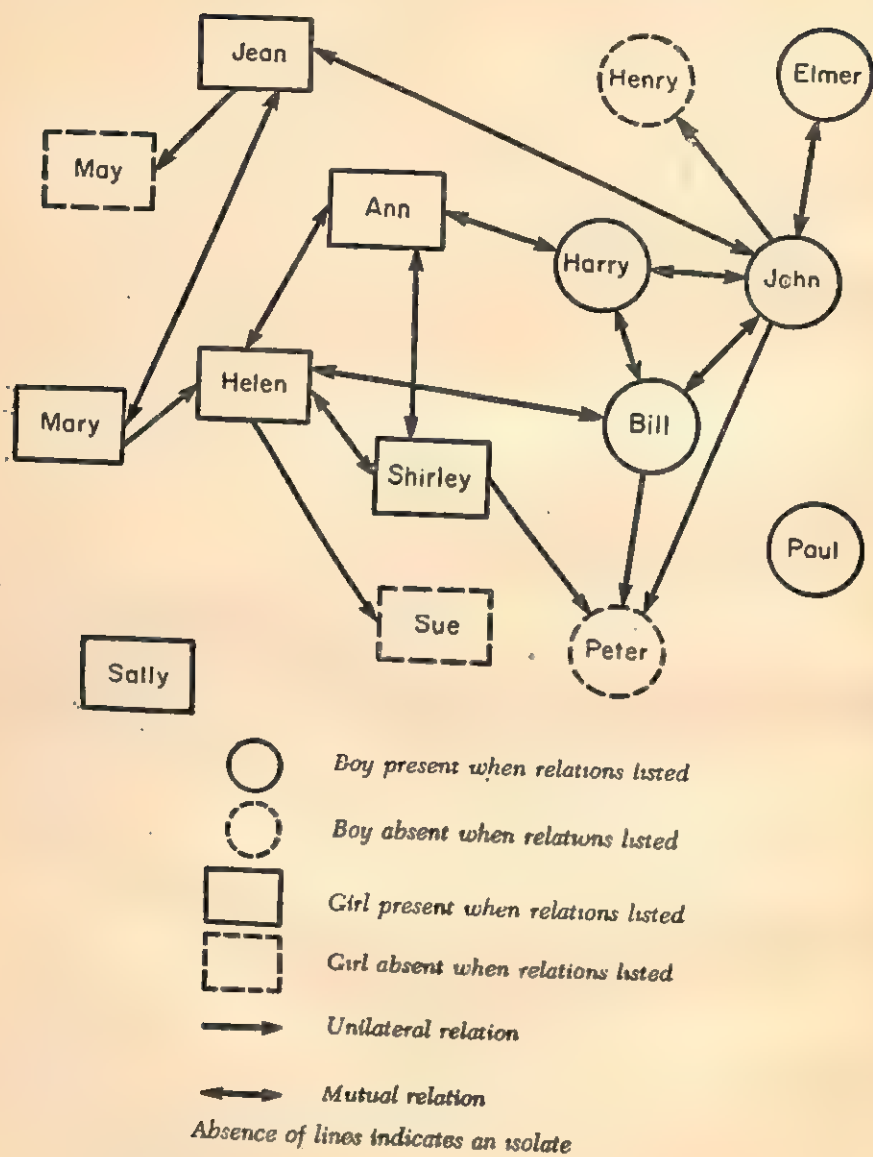


FIGURE 2 Sociogram of Sixth Grade Group

Cumulative records are found and are used in all schools which are concentrating upon understanding boys and girls. If the records in the school, or at the level, at which the student teacher is working are not cumulative, he will find the effort to accumulate the important information about his pupils a most profitable learning experience and a valuable teaching aid. An adequate cumulative record usually includes: personal information—date and place of birth, race, home and family background, travel, work experiences; school history and achievement—schools attended, attendance, promotions, marks, honors, awards, failures; test data—intelligence, achievement, interest and personality inventories, aptitude; activities—membership in both in-school and out-of-school activities, hobbies, school offices and committees, community and leisure time activities; health information—physical examinations, health history, immunizations; other data—autobiography, copies of reports to parents, anecdotal records. In accumulating the information, the student teacher may find it helpful to follow a prepared commercial form or to design one of his own in order to speed the collection of data and to prevent overlapping of effort and duplication of information. Information which is available somewhere in the school hastens the completion of the cumulative record; however, it is sometimes necessary to draw upon original sources for crucial data.

The material presented in this chapter has been presented in an attempt to indicate the kinds of information, to be accumulated—with the possible exception of anecdotal records. Anecdotal records attempt to show the representative ways in which boys and girls behave in different kinds of situations. They indicate the ways of acting, revealing tension, and expressing ideas which are characteristic of a child. The records consist of brief objective descriptions of what happened in critical events. In recording anecdotal records it is necessary to describe behavior accurately and objectively without evaluating results, passing judgment, or rationalizing causes.

Matters relating to the responsibility for records and their preparation and storage are best determined by the use made of the information recorded. Central filing and storage do not always prove to be efficient or effective because all school personnel concerned with a pupil may not have easy access to his records. In general, the home room teacher, core teacher, or other person who provides and co-ordinates special services for pupils should have charge of their records. Access to the records of a pupil should be limited to those school people who have responsibilities for him and are concerned with helping him. It is assumed that all persons who use pupils' records will treat the information in a professional manner, will be aware of the danger of prejudice, and will develop the ability to interpret data in an objective and unbiased manner.

In a program of mass education, emphasis must be placed upon the individualization of instruction or sight of the individual may be lost. If the individual pupils become lost in the masses, the school will likely fail to reach the objectives of American education. In studying individual pupils, the case study represents a most productive source of new insights and information for the student teacher.

An important feature of the case study is the case record, which contains all of the data bearing upon the problem under study. Thus, the case study becomes primarily an extension of the cumulative record. Obviously, case records are more complete and useful if the cumulative records of the school furnish comprehensive information about the pupils.

The "case-study method" follows the same pattern of objective investigation used in medicine, which involves analyzing data, identifying symptoms, diagnosing causes, prescribing treatment, and evaluating the effectiveness of the treatment. Many times the competencies demanded of persons doing case-study work are based upon special training which is not normally included in the preparation of the student teacher. Moreover, the classroom teacher ordinarily does not have the time to conduct a comprehensive case study. In the face of limited training and time the student teacher is amply justified in calling for help from a counselor, psychiatrist, or other specially trained person. In fact, the student can prevent the harm which may come from his working with cases above his level of training by refusing to go beyond his depth and by recognizing when referral to specialists is necessary and advisable. His efforts to make case studies, however, will be rewarded by adopting the scientific attitude of investigation as he carefully studies the case records—including the data outlined in Principle 21—and as he applies the techniques of observing, testing, and interviewing.

The informality which usually characterizes the program of co-curricular activities is helpful to the student in observing the behavior of pupils under conditions different from regular class work. In many instances pupils reveal their most typical behavior only in activities which they organize and conduct, such as clubs, athletics, programs, assemblies, student government, newspaper activities, and various committee assignments. Through observing and guiding pupils in such co-curricular activities, the student teacher has an excellent opportunity to study boys and girls at first hand in nearly natural situations.

Perhaps the behavior of children and youth is more natural still when they participate in out-of-school activities. Free-time reading, movie attendance, radio and television entertainment, social participation, church membership and attendance, club activity, and work experience are important avenues for learn-

ing to understand boys and girls. It is possible to secure information about pupil participation in the kinds of activities indicated through observation, questionnaires, work records, and conferences with those who have the opportunity of observing the activity of pupils in community situations.

The individual conference or personal interview has unique value in fact-finding and in working with boys and girls toward solution of their problems. The conference is especially productive of pertinent information when teacher and pupil have established good rapport. Probably all teachers would agree that the most effective conference is one which grows naturally out of a need for co-operative attack upon a situation. However, it is unfortunately true that on occasion a pupil-teacher conference is not successful in achieving its objective. The chances of a conference succeeding are greatly increased when it is well planned, when its purpose is clearly established, at least in the thinking of the counselor, when adequate preparation has been made, and when the teacher has mastered the techniques required for successful counseling. Sometimes the use of an interview blank aids in focusing the conference and in securing desired information. If, however, its use interferes with the conducting of the interview, the effectiveness of the conference and of the blank may both be lost. The results of conferences are often valuable in handling old problems or in meeting new ones. For this reason, it is advisable to keep a record of all conferences and especially of those related to problem cases. The record is usually prepared after a conference is concluded and is preserved for use as a basis for action or study in connection with other conferences.

The parents of the boys and girls in the school represent one of the best sources of information concerning the pupils. Parental contacts of all kinds offer great possibilities for learning more about the children and the community. Visits or calls by parents to the school for information about their children, reports of pupil progress to parents, activities of parental organizations, and, as already indicated, visits to homes by school people are all avenues through which the school may learn parents' views of what their children are like and what they need. The understanding teacher can enlist and secure the aid of parents in the work of the school through individual parent-teacher conferences at home and at school, questionnaires, informal discussion groups, and work conference groups composed of parents, teachers, and pupils.

Conferences with persons other than parents who know the boys and girls are possible sources of significant facts which may reveal causes of behavior. Included among such persons are teachers, counselors, sponsors of co-curricular activities and other school personnel, physicians, school nurses, and scout-

masters. Many times the help or information that persons outside the school can give in connection with a puzzling case will prove to be the key to the solution of the problem.

In addition to the sources of information about pupils already described, there are several others of a more or less informal nature which may be utilized by resourceful students of teaching. Autobiographies, when written as free narratives, give a ready history of the pupil and may furnish clues to interests and background factors worth investigating. A report of the books and magazines read as free reading material by the pupil may reveal the nature of his reading interest. A composition written on a selected subject may aid in understanding the pupil. Subjects such as the following may produce revealing results: "What I Want to Do after High School," "The Book I Like Best," "The Movies I Like Best," and "My Greatest Difficulty." A record kept by the pupil of all of his observations in connection with a specific subject sometimes throws light on the nature of his out-of-school experiences. Interview blanks and questionnaires may be designed which will produce information useful in understanding pupils.

No single source of information about pupils is adequate within itself, and the use of one usually leads to the inclusion of another. The student is cautioned to be tactful, and to use with discretion any source of information and all devices and techniques for securing personal data about boys and girls. The goal to be reached is to secure necessary data through wholesome and valuable activities and through experiences of teachers, pupils, and parents.

23. Effective Use of Data Is Necessary to Intelligent Understanding of Pupils.

The products of child study will not result in intelligent understanding and guidance of boys and girls unless the data are put to effective use. Data will be used effectively when the student of teaching has developed understandings, knowledges, and skills that give intelligent direction to the study of children and youth. Development of a high level of competence in the techniques of studying boys and girls demands continuous study and activity in various educational endeavors, including intensive study of a few normal pupils; participation in in-service education programs provided by schools; work in voluntary study groups, summer workshops, and clinics conducted by school systems and educational institutions; and participation in the work of professional organizations.

24. Guidance Helps Pupils Become Increasingly Self-directive.

Promotion of the growth of the individual is the focus of studying children and youth. It is pointless to make extensive

investigations of boys and girls unless the studies are to be used to help young people in solving their problems of adjustment at various stages of their growth. The help that teachers, guidance workers, and psychologists give children and youth toward solving their numerous problems of adjustment is now presented in the professional literature under the generic term "guidance." The problems faced by a person have many impending elements which involve the individual and his environment, and guidance is concerned with the growth of the whole person. Because the student teacher has a composite responsibility for the child, he will attempt to provide guidance to further the total growth and adjustment of the individual.

Conceivably, the student teacher may be faced at this point with a dilemma regarding the nature and meaning of guidance. Is guidance to be interpreted as a philosophy or as a program? Is it any different from the practice of the pupil-centered school? Is it not the same as good teaching, which is guidance-like in nature? Upon reflection it may be seen that, from one point of view, all teaching is guidance, and the philosophy of guidance should pervade the whole educational program. From another viewpoint, a special guidance program is needed in order to provide for the individual needs of pupils which may not be met through a program of mass education. The nature and purpose of guidance is to assist the pupil in recognizing his abilities, limitations, interests, problems, and needs and to realize his potentialities to the fullest extent. The pupil needs help in understanding the problems which face him, whether they are academic and related to progress in a subject-matter field, or social and concerned with his daily contacts with other persons. He needs help in recognizing opportunities, in choosing activities both in and out of school, in analyzing the kinds of choices he makes, and in determining objectives and goals of which he is capable. The need for guidance stems from the conditions of life which face pupils and the purpose of guidance is to assist them to solve the problems of the life they live.

The concept of guidance which envisions the individual making his own decisions in terms of his goals is a somewhat radical departure from the situation in which teachers make decisions for pupils in terms of goals recognized only by the teachers. The person who supplies the guidance helps in clarifying problems and points out related problems or factors which the pupil may overlook; but the recognition and acceptance of a problem is done by the boy or girl who is responsible for making the choice. Thus, the final goal of all guidance is intelligent self-direction by the pupil. Opportunities to promote growth in the ability of pupils to direct their own activities are present in every classroom. The excellent student of teaching utilizes such opportunities in making pupils increasingly responsible for the intelligent self-direction of their actions.

25. The Organization for Guidance Co-ordinates the Functions of All Concerned.

The program of guidance which is developed in a school is a product of the concept of guidance which the school staff holds, of the needs of the pupils, and of the resources available for developing the program. Regardless of the type of school situation in which it is developed, the program of guidance will be worthwhile only if it includes teachers, guidance specialists (if they are employed), and members of the administrative staff. Guidance as a responsibility of the persons indicated presents many difficulties. Some school staffs seem to take the responsibilities of guidance for granted and perform only those services which are rather closely integrated with instruction and administration. Other schools employ guidance specialists to organize and direct the program, to provide counseling service for special cases, and to help prepare regular staff members to perform the guidance activities expected of them. Since the school of today attempts to provide opportunities for the children of all the people, the scope of guidance has been extended, and the problems incident to rendering such services have added to the difficulties of the school. The difficulties of guidance are further increased by the spreading of responsibilities for guidance among various functionaries who have unlike kinds of training and experience and who view the nature of guidance from different frames of reference. Moreover, guidance cannot be rendered effectively without the co-operation of all members of the staff and a clear understanding of the purposes to be achieved, the activities to be performed, the methods to be used, and the particular responsibilities and functions to be assumed by all concerned.

The organization of an effective guidance program attempts to provide for the totality of problems arising from the complete guidance process. Various ways of organizing guidance programs have been tried with varying degrees of success. One type of organization is designed to serve the entire school system at all grade levels; another attempts to meet the needs of individual schools. At present, the trend is to regard each school as a unit in the planning of a guidance program within the general framework established by the state and local school systems. Under such a plan the central administration holds the principal of each school responsible for developing his guidance organization according to the accepted policies of the school system. Thus, central office personnel serve as consultants to the principals and staffs of local schools. By such means the local school is enabled to develop a guidance organization adaptable to its own needs and resources.

The administrator of the school has a very important place in the guidance program. While the focus of his responsibility lies mainly in the area of organization, he is responsible for promoting the morale of the pupils and teachers, selecting and

recommending well-qualified personnel, seeing that adequate guidance materials are available, assigning guidance duties to the various functionaries, and exercising general supervision of the total guidance program, including in-service education for all guidance personnel. In a small school the principal will probably direct as well as organize the guidance program. Regardless of the particular guidance responsibilities assumed by the principal, an effective program of guidance is achieved by bringing about a positive feeling in the group concerned. Unless the principal believes in the guidance program and gives it his active support, it is not likely to succeed in adequately meeting the needs of the pupils.

The plan of organization of the guidance program should provide for the services of certain specialists, such as psychologists, psychiatrists, dentists, nurses, physicians, special counselors, social workers, and visiting teachers. If it is not possible for a school to secure the services of such specialists on a part-time or full-time basis, they may be made available as needs arise. Most pupils will not need to be served by all of the specialists indicated because the parents will see that the children's needs are met. It seems wise, though, for the modern school to make available the necessary resources for detecting maladjustments in their early stages, safeguarding the welfare of pupils whose families are not alert to the discovery of trouble, and assisting teachers in the efficient handling of problem cases. For example, the special counselor does not attempt to counsel all of the pupils in a grade or class, but he offers technical advice to teachers and assists them in studying special cases. In other words, teachers refer serious cases of maladjustment to the counselor after preliminary study or recognition of symptoms indicating the need for special attention.

In the past, the classroom teacher has not been directly included in the organizational arrangement for guidance. In recent years, however, recognition has been taken of the vital role of the classroom teacher in guiding boys and girls. Especially important is the contribution of the classroom teacher when learning is viewed as guidance, because the basic assumption underlying a guidance-learning theory is that adjustment is learned. In other words, the pupil must learn the responses which are adequate to produce behavior that is acceptable in his environment. The desired responses are the learnings or changes of behavior which result in the satisfactory adjustment of the learner to the impingements of his environment. It is in the classroom, then, that the needs of pupils for guidance are usually first revealed, that the teacher becomes aware of the needs, and that instructional activity becomes interwoven with guidance problems. The importance of the teacher as a guidance functionary is magnified by the fact that instruction requires an understanding of boys and girls and a diagnosis of

their needs. One of the major research findings of the past few years is the necessity for the teacher to function as a guidance worker if he is to be completely effective. The function applies equally to teachers in both the elementary and secondary schools and has received recent emphasis with respect to the work of teachers at the elementary level. This should not be interpreted to mean that the teacher can perform all the necessary functions of guidance in the school, or that all teachers can or will execute guidance activities equally well. On the other hand, the fact remains that much of the guidance service that must be offered will be performed by the classroom teacher or it will not be provided in the school.

26. Guidance Is a Service Function.

The function of the guidance program in the school is to help the pupils solve their problems. Contrary to what many administrative officers and teachers believe, the purpose of the guidance program is not to simplify the problems of administering the school and thus to produce a smoothly operating educational unit. While it is recognized that a well organized and effective program of guidance contributes to the solution of administrative problems and assists the teachers in performing various activities, the fact remains that such contributions are merely desirable outgrowths of the central function of guidance, which is the rendering of aid and service to pupils.

The services received by pupils in the normal operation of a good guidance program are so numerous that it is not practicable to attempt a complete description of them in this volume. However, illustrations will be given of the important types of guidance services usually extended to pupils at both the elementary and secondary levels. One of the most important of all guidance services is the orientation of a pupil when he enters a school for the first time. The initial entrance of a child into a school calls for his adjustment to a new environment. It has been said that some of the basic needs of children centre about desires to be wanted and to feel secure. Probably, such needs will not be experienced by the child more strongly than when he enters a school for the first time. He needs to become acquainted with the building and physical facilities, to learn the names of officials and teachers, and to know the schedule of his activities and the rules and regulations of the school. Above all he wants a warm, friendly reception by classmates and teachers, who demonstrate that they are glad to have him and who thus give to him the security which comes from being accepted as a member of a group.

Educational guidance is a second important service of the guidance program. It is unrealistic to expect high school pupils to choose activities which will adequately meet their needs, or elementary boys and girls to see the important relation of pre-

sent studies to future educational plans. Pupils need help with such problems and, as has been indicated, the guidance they receive has to be based upon a knowledge of their abilities, interests, and needs. Educational guidance is also concerned with the discovery and exploration of new interests, the development of a wholesome curiosity in various areas of learning, and the exploration of different areas of the curriculum.

Vocational guidance is a third important guidance service which most schools provide for pupils. Many professional educators believe that vocational planning should begin when the child first enters school. They recognize that the immaturity of elementary and junior high school boys and girls makes the expectancy that they can make satisfactory vocational plans unreasonable. However, teachers on the lower levels can do much to develop serious thinking by pupils about future vocational selection and preparation. Through the discussion of the nature and kinds of different areas of work, the taking of field trips, the use of audio-visual aids, and the study of man's attempts to make a living, teachers can begin to direct the pupils in their search for solutions to their vocational problems.

While vocational guidance at the secondary level is still somewhat general in nature, it is mainly concerned with the development and analysis of interests and abilities which point toward certain types of vocations. For example, assistance is given the pupils in making tentative vocational choices and in discovering the capacities necessary to enter the particular vocations which have been chosen. Occupational information relative to the tentatively chosen vocations is made available concerning the kinds of education and preparation required, the location of the nearest sources providing the required education and preparation, the cost of the training, the working conditions which may be expected, the hours of work, the remuneration anticipated, the personal satisfaction derived from the service rendered, and the opportunities for advancement. Many schools provide in-school try-out experiences for pupils in all possible areas so that there will be some understanding of the abilities needed before final choices are made. Other schools arrange work-experience programs with out-of-school agencies in order for pupils to gain practical experience while attending school. Still other schools provide vocational placement services and follow-up programs after youth have been employed. Actually, these latter named services were the original purposes of guidance in the schools but they have been pushed aside somewhat by the other aspects of guidance which have developed through the years. Important as each is, none of the various guidance services should be permitted to monopolize or drain the resources of the guidance program in such a way as to lessen the effectiveness of the other guidance activities included in the guidance program of the school.

Adjustment services are the final category of important guidance functions to be discussed. Perhaps, no guidance service other than adjustment brings to a focus upon pupils' problems the various matters concerned with understanding and guiding children and youth which have been presented and discussed in this chapter. The adjustment function of guidance in a broad sense is concerned with the changes necessary to produce desirable responses of pupils. In some cases the individuals concerned may be able to make the necessary changes but in most instances the changes have to be made for the pupils. The student teacher needs to be concerned with the problems of personal and social adjustment of pupils if he is to aid in the development of children and youth who are to become capable of actively participating in a democratic society.

Overconfidence, intolerance, lack of self-confidence, irresponsibility, boredom with leisure time, unsocial behavior, and poor relations with others are evidences of the need of pupils for help in making satisfactory adjustments to varying situations. Recognition of the symptoms of maladjustment by the student of teaching calls for skill in applying scientific procedures to a study of the pupils concerned. The search for causes of trouble demands knowledge and understanding of the boys and girls and of the environmental factors acting upon them. Diagnosis thus includes analysis, interpretation, and evaluation of the factors and conditions which have determined the present status of the child. Once causes are known, steps may be taken to remedy the difficulty through the making of changes necessary to restore the child to a normal status. In the diagnosis and treatment of severe cases the student teacher may need the help of especially trained guidance functionaries.

PROBLEMS

1. Make a sociogram of your class or of a group in it. Examine carefully the relations existing in the group and plan to work with individual pupils in the ways indicated to be necessary and desirable.
2. Administer an intelligence test to a group of pupils. Score the tests and interpret the results. Use the results in working individually with the pupils.
3. Perform Problem 2 using a standardized general-achievement test.
4. Make a case study of a pupil. Interpret the findings and use them in working individually with the pupil.
5. Assist in collecting and recording information for the cumulative records of your group. Interpret and use the age, and slow learners in the group. records in working individually with selected fast, aver-

6. Prepare for a conference with a pupil concerning the meeting of an evident need. Hold the conference, record the results for the cumulative record, and follow up the conference to observe the effect upon the pupil's situation.
7. Observe a conference between your supervising teacher and a parent concerning the meeting of a pupil's need. Prepare for the conference as if you were to conduct it alone. Record the results for the cumulative record and follow up the conference to observe the effect upon the pupil's situation.
8. Outline the plan of organization for guidance in the school in which you are doing your student teaching. Describe the roles of the various guidance functionaries.

Directing Learning

LEARNING is the *raison d'être* of teaching. In other words, the main purpose of teaching is to facilitate learning. One important criterion for evaluating teaching is the efficiency of the learning that has taken place. Thus, the objectives, methods, and techniques of teaching must converge toward learning as the goal to be achieved. In a sense, the conditions and bases of learning become cues for teaching. All of teaching is, or certainly should be, based upon assumptions relative to the nature and operation of the learning process.

Understanding the learning process is one of the most important matters facing the student of teaching. Certainly, he cannot afford to have less than a clear grasp of the assumptions regarding the nature of learning.

27. The Successful Teacher Understands the Nature of the Learning Process.

In Principle 4, Chapter I, it has been pointed out that each human individual lives in an environment with which he interacts, because he simply cannot escape it. Interaction with the environment results in impingements of it on the individual that produce tensions or disturbances in his normal state of adjustment or of equilibrium. There is then a need on the part of the person to act differently, or to change his behavior in such a way as to relieve the tension or restore the state of equilibrium with environmental conditions. The immediate purpose or goal to be achieved by the learner is the satisfaction of his need. If the new activities on the part of the learner achieve this purpose,

that is, meet his need, the experience is satisfying and tends to be repeated. The experience then results in different behavior of the person as he incorporates the new activities into his "way" of behaving. Learning is then said to have taken place, since the behavior of the individual has changed.

Learning, then, is a change in the behavior of a person which is produced through his own activity. An important implication of this statement and the process described which is significant to the teacher is that learning is an active, continuous process, not a passive one. This means that an individual learns through activity, that is, through experience which results from interaction with the environment. Thus, no person can learn for another—each individual must learn for himself. Others may assist the child in learning and they may guide his efforts to learn, but they cannot learn for him.

Attention has been called to the activity and experience of the individual involved in the learning process. In fact, it has been said that one learns to do by doing, by activity, or by experience, and only in this way. The student usually is able to understand that a person learns by doing when a motor skill is being developed or, in other words, when the activity is overt. On the other hand, when the learning involves the development of an understanding, an appreciation, or an attitude, the activity of the individual is not easily identified, because mental activity is not directly observable. Nevertheless, the individual has been active. For, again, it is only through the actions of the learner that learning can take place. When overt behavior is involved, the actions of the learner are easily noted, and even his efforts to initiate, guide, and direct his own learning can be observed. However, in the case of covert behavior, such as formulating a concept or developing an attitude, the actions of the learner are not directly observable. Reliance must then be placed upon what the individual does as a result of his learning or the extent to which he acts in a way which shows the development of the particular learning involved—that is, the concept or attitude set out to be learned.

The educational process cannot wait until psychology explains exactly how learning does take place. In the interim the school must continue to operate. Meanwhile, the student of teaching is assured that learning is an active kind of phenomenon, and that it comes from within the individual and through his interaction with the people and things which surround him. In the school, the teacher and the materials of instruction are important parts of the learner's surroundings.

28. Learning Begins Where Pupils Are.

Learning begins with the pupil's problems, not the teacher's. It grows out of the needs and interests of the pupil. The teacher

who stands in the rarefied atmosphere of an academic mountaintop and urges the pupils to come up where he is will not be very successful. He will succeed in promoting learning only when he understands the real problems faced by the boys and girls in his group.

Learning is not a matter of pupils performing for teachers. It is a process in which the learners must be actively engaged. Learning is an experiencing by the learner, and without experience there is no learning. Since no two learners interpret or reconstruct experiences in identical ways, learning is for each individual a process leading to a unique outcome. For example, two persons, even though they are identical twins, will have unique learning experiences when placed in the same situation. Suppose they are listening to a vocalist sing a song. The sound waves must be received and reacted to by the two listeners before learning can occur. Because the two persons have different receptors, receive non-identical vibrations, and make unlike recognition of the value of the music produced, their learning is uniquely individual, even in such a stereotyped situation. No two individuals have the same perceptions of similar situations. Because this is true and because the learner accepts and acts upon what he perceives, perception becomes a fundamental variable element in learning. Thus, learning varies within a group, and the learners of the group will not learn identical things from a given situation, or in the same time period.

In light of what has been said, learning is seen to begin with the learner where he is, and cannot begin at any other level. It derives its impetus from his interests, needs, and drives, and it takes its direction from the elements and factors upon which he places value. The track coach, for example, who begins the teaching of the high jump does not place the crossbar at a level higher than the jumper can jump. Rather, he begins the process with the bar at a height which the learner can reach comfortably, in order to concentrate the activity of the jumper upon the fundamentals of body manipulation and co-ordination involved in making the jump expertly. In other words, the coach begins with the learner at the latter's level of development and maturity in high jumping. There is no difference in method in beginning with learners in the school. Real learning begins on the maturity levels of the boys and girls in the teaching-learning situation.

Regardless of grade level, some teachers believe that perhaps the easiest thing to do is to make a uniform assignment and to cover the same ground with all pupils, except to adjust matters as necessary in special cases. Moreover, the same teachers regard pupil conformity to given classroom conditions as evidence of learning. They easily assume that the pupil who conforms best to the teacher's directions learns best. Actually, pupil con-

formity to a prescribed program is no assurance that he is learning. He may not grow as he engages in the daily lock-step routine of meeting the teacher's assignments. Teaching and learning are infinitely more complex than giving and following sets of directions.

The first job of the student teacher, then, is to determine where the pupil is and what his needs are with respect to the planning of a program to meet them. Whether it is developing number concepts in grade five, ability to read in grade two, or social sensitivity in grade twelve, the approach is the same. To begin with the learner where he is means that the teacher knows him well enough to determine the level he has reached. It also means that the teacher is able to determine where he is now as well as where he was yesterday or last week. As indicated in Chapter IV, many of the techniques effective in learning to understand boys and girls involve the pupils in planning the activities to be performed. "Textbook teaching" and "hearing lessons" do not usually include the most effective teaching and learning experiences for the realization of the objectives of the school. If pupils are to become competent citizens they must have opportunities to practice good citizenship here and now. Such opportunities are not likely to be provided in the traditional "assign-study-recite" pattern of school experience. In such a pattern the teacher does all the planning, and the pupil is permitted to engage in only the "study-recite" aspects of the program. It is much more profitable educationally when the student of teaching includes the pupil in the learning activity from its beginning to its end. It then becomes possible for the pupil to share in the planning of the activities, to participate in performing them, and to assist in evaluating the results achieved. With respect to the method indicated, John Dewey has given sensible advice in these words :

It is the business of the educator to study the tendencies of the young so as to become more consciously aware than are the children themselves what the latter need and want. Any other course transfers the responsibility of the teacher to those taught. Arbitrary "dictation" is not a matter of words or of form, but consists in imposing actions that do not correspond with tendencies that can be discovered within the experience of those who are growing up.¹

The best way to ensure a curriculum based on children's needs and interests is to get the pupils to help develop it. Only by knowing, insofar as possible, where his pupils are can the student of teaching effectively include them in the work of planning their learning experiences. The principle of beginning with the learner where he is does not deny the student teacher the right to his teaching standards and purposes but it asks that he adjust them to reality.

1. *The Activity Movement*, Thirty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1934, p. 85.

29. Teaching Is Directing the Experience of Pupils.

Learning has been emphasized as a process of changing behavior through experience. Such an emphasis implies that the amount of learning and the ease with which it is accomplished are in direct proportion to the multiplicity and variation of the experiences of the learners. Thus, learning is a progressive and continuous process. Because it is progressive in nature, learning involves the reorganization of experience in such a way that what is learned has new meaning here and now and furnishes a foundation for future learning. Moreover, what is being learned must be adapted to what has been learned. In like manner, that which has been learned in the past must be related to what is being learned in the present.

The truth of the statements presented appears more clearly when it is remembered that if past experiences were not utilized in the learning process, the learner would always have to start at the beginning, because learning begins with present experience. The student teacher need not expect that his pupils will profit by experiences beyond their present level of understanding by mere exposure to them. Only through the accumulation of experience and a process of development can deeper levels of insight, understanding, and learning be achieved.

The main implication for the teacher from the concepts presented is the relationship of his role as teacher to the learning which takes place in his classroom. As he interacts with his environment, the child experiences the need to respond in numerous ways to the different aspects of the teaching-learning situation. In reality, the child's need to respond is varied and multiple, and it may be as complex as it is possible to imagine. The child either responds in a satisfactory way, or he fails to solve the problem or meet the situation in a desirable and satisfying manner. When such a failure occurs, he experiences a need to make an adequate adjustment or response. In other words, he has a need to act differently or to change his behavior in such a way as to promote achievement of his goal. This means he must perform those activities and undergo those experiences which serve his need. It is through performing these activities and having these experiences that the child learns. The activities and experiences, however, will be meaningful and significant to the child only insofar as he understands them to be leading him to the realization of his goal. It is only in this way that his learning will be goal-centered and purposeful.

Thus, the role of the teacher is to provide and condition the environment surrounding the learner, so that the latter's interaction with it will lead toward his goals and meet his needs. As indicated, such an environment and atmosphere will consist, basically, of a program of activities and experiences through which the child builds patterns of response which satisfy his

needs. And the activities and experiences of the child are understood, appreciated, and accepted by him as 'worthwhile only if he sees them as avenues of approach to reaching his goals. Thus, teaching operates to assist learning through the provision of significant learning situations built upon meaningful activities and purposeful experiences designed to meet pupils' needs.

Effective learning takes place when the pupil identifies and accepts purposes and makes the effort himself; the teacher helps to direct the activity that leads him to the achievement of his goal. Whether the goal is learning to read, to write, to figure, or to get along with people, the results achieved will reveal the individuality of the learner. Teaching, then, involves determining the learning potentialities of each child, knowing how to relate new to old experiences at different stages of development, manipulating the environment in order to bring forth each talent and skill, determining the combination of elements necessary to stimulate each child to respond to the fullest, and recognizing the kinds of experiences that will function in the life of the pupil by meeting his needs and assisting him to achieve his goals.

30. **Effective Teaching and Learning Are Directed toward Meeting Pupils' Needs.**

One approach to the solution of many of the problems of teaching and learning is based upon recent psychological and educational research, which makes it apparent that there are **causes** for learning and behavior, and that the causes are not simple in nature but complex in character and function. In this approach cognizance is taken of the fact that each pupil is a unique and indivisible unit and has individual needs to be met which are disparate from those of other people, and that, at the same time, each individual has some needs in common with other persons. In order to guide the learning of boys and girls effectively, it is believed that their common and individual needs must both be known, and that the teaching methods and materials must be planned and developed in terms of these needs. It is imperative, therefore, for students of teaching, teachers, and all others who work with boys and girls to understand the factors which influence learning and to go beyond a cursory knowledge of the problems of pupils to a thorough knowledge of their needs. "Pupil Needs" are defined in the **Dictionary of Education** as :

Everything necessary to insure the optimum development of the potential abilities of a pupil—intellectual, physical, moral, emotional, and social—both in relation to his present interests, abilities, and level of achievement and in relation to the probable future demands of the individual and of society.²

Pupil needs are by definition conceived as broad inclusive elements which embrace both temporary and permanent prob-

2. By permission from *Dictionary of Education*, by Carter V. Good. (Copyright 1945) McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, p. 271.

lems and which encompass the present and probable future aspects of a person's life. From this point of view, all boys and girls, not merely those children often referred to as "problem children," have needs to be met. In other words, the suggested approach to teaching takes account of the fact that no one group of pupils has all or even a majority of educational needs which must be met, while other groups have no needs. The point of view suggests that the needs of children are not those of a few persons in a simple, homogeneous group, but that all children and youth of a heterogeneous school population have needs which cut across biological, racial, social, and economic lines.

The discussion implies that the various needs should be identified and steps taken to provide the individual with the means of satisfying it. In other words, if pupil's behavior is determined by attempts of the organism to relieve tension, and if needs are conceived as activating forces in behavior and conditioners of effective living, then the meeting of the needs is obviously the desirable goal of teaching, learning, and of education, itself.

Efforts to identify the needs of pupils through the application of any of the methods will result in the collection of large amounts of information. Thus, there is need for a systematic method of collecting, organizing, and recording data in order to prevent omission of necessary information and duplication of effort. Records are most helpful when they are complete, cumulative, and concise. The aim is to build a comprehensive picture of the problems and needs of the entire school population so that the total job facing the school may be known. Included in the picture, but clearly distinguishable, should be the needs of the various groups of pupils as they are organized in the school and of the individual pupils within the groups. This identification of the needs of the different groups and individuals provides the only way whereby teachers may plan a program to meet common and individual needs.

From the analysis and interpretation of the data collected through the various studies of the needs of children and youth have come descriptions and lists of the basic needs. Although some differences exist among the needs listed by students and writers in the field, there is also considerable agreement. The basic needs usually listed are :

1. The need for security.
2. The need for belonging.
3. The need for achievement.
4. The need for love and affection.
5. The need for understanding.
6. The need for freedom from guilt and fear.¹

¹ 3. Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1953, p. 169.

In applying the present approach to teaching and learning, the student teacher must recognize fully the basic needs of the child in the process of growth and development. In making the application, a mechanistic approach and the finality of educational determinism must be avoided, especially in considering the nature of the needs themselves.

The second step in applying the suggested approach to teaching is the planning and development of school experiences designed to meet the needs of pupils which have been determined. The studies of needs, then, become in reality the means not only of discovering the needs themselves but also a basis for building a functional school program. Only when teachers do the kind of teaching and develop the type of instructional program which will satisfy these needs can the purposes of the school be realized. The development of such a program calls for careful analysis and planning in five major areas. The areas are: (1) the development of a sound educational philosophy, (2) the statement of the educational objectives to be achieved, (3) the provision for activities and experiences (curriculum) designed to achieve the objectives, (4) the evaluation of the program in terms of the objectives, and (5) the redevelopment of the program in light of the results of evaluation.

It is distressing that many teachers, supposedly well trained and experienced, in point of time at least, do not seem to know what they should be teaching and why they should teach it. The student of teaching cannot hope to be a good teacher unless he is clear as to the points indicated. In other words, he needs to formulate his own educational point of view—he needs to develop his philosophy of education so clearly that he not only can state it but can put it into effect in his classwork.

An outline for developing a sound philosophy of education was presented in Principle 4, Chapter I. Within the framework of the philosophy developed, the application of the present theory to teaching may be approached through considering some of the implications of the six basic needs listed within this chapter. In drawing implications, emphasis should be placed upon the outgoing aspects of the theory, as well as upon the ego-centered approach. Implications, then, should be viewed from a nonegocentric orientation. Some important implications follow.

1. The need for security:

- a. Learning the interpersonal nature of security.
- b. Learning what can be expected in intergroup relations.
- c. Learning to value intangibles.
- d. Learning the security brought about through family groups, peer groups, and other group relations.
- e. Learning the security brought about through economic efficiency.
- f. Learning the security which comes through sharing.

2. The need for belonging:

- a. Learning to find a place in various types of groups.

- b. Learning both leadership and followership responsibilities.
 - c. Learning to discriminate in what is worthwhile in belonging.
 - d. Learning to help others to meet their needs for belonging.
 - e. Learning respect for self.
3. The need for achievement:
- a. Learning to appraise and appreciate achievements of others.
 - b. Learning the best time and way to make contributions.
 - c. Learning the value of group achievement.
 - d. Learning to help others in achieving.
 - e. Learning the value of social, mental, and vocational achievement.
4. The need for love and affection:
- a. Learning appropriate times and ways to express love and affection.
 - b. Learning to include many persons in the patterns of love and affection.
 - c. Learning to be unselfish in affections.
 - d. Learning to identify behavior indicating need for love and affection.
5. The need for understanding:
- a. Learning to accept the views of others.
 - b. Learning to share the problems of others.
 - c. Learning the significance of group responsibilities.
 - d. Learning the importance of various groups.
 - e. Learning to understand civic responsibilities.
 - f. Learning the importance of basic skills.
 - g. Learning to be socially acceptable.
6. The need for freedom from guilt and fear:
- a. Learning to express emotions acceptably.
 - b. Learning to relieve tensions in an acceptable manner.
 - c. Learning to share troubles understandingly.
 - d. Learning the appropriateness of compromise.

The student teacher will recognize that the foregoing list is not all-inclusive but exemplary of the type of study necessary to intelligent planning of educational experiences which will meet the needs of pupils. It is necessary for the student of teaching to draw the proper implications of the needs theory for the particular level at which he is working and for the stage of maturity of the children he is teaching. For example, in making specific application of the need for security, the teacher of elementary school children needs to draw implications in terms of security brought about through family groups, peer groups, and other group relations. On the other hand, the teacher working with adolescents at the secondary school level must draw additional implications for developing security along financial, economic, social, and vocational lines. In like manner, teachers at various levels will make the appropriate interpretations and applications of the other basic needs in their work.

The second area in the planning and development of experiences to meet the pupils' needs is the statement of the educational objectives to be achieved. The criteria which the student of teaching may apply to guide him in thinking through the major objectives, which both he and the school should strive to achieve are concerned with two important aspects of living: the implications of the philosophy of our democratic way of life and a study of the activities of an effectively functioning member of our democratic society. At the point of actually determining which objectives should be established and worked toward, what has been said concerning educational philosophy and study of needs should prove helpful. In other words, the educational philosophy which the student has formulated will have of necessity been influenced by the conceptions which he holds of his way of life. In addition, the studies of needs and their educational implications will have been conditioned by the student's understanding of the general behavior and particular activities deemed essential for the good democratic citizen. Thus, the application of the criteria governing the determination of objectives gives basic consideration to the steps already taken in formulating an educational point of view and in discovering and identifying the educational needs of children and youth.

In determining the broad general objectives of the program of work the student is urged to become acquainted with the efforts of educators to put into words and actions what the schools should accomplish. This should not be interpreted to mean that the student should accept the thinking of others without reservation or reflection; rather, he is urged to understand what others believe about the purposes of education and then to formulate his own notions of the goals of the schools and the role of education in our society. From the various efforts which have been made to define the functions and purposes of education one is presented here in summary form.

This worthwhile effort to formulate general educational objectives has been exerted by the Educational Policies Commission. The group identified four major areas of educational objectives: (1) Self-Realization, (2) Human Relationship, (3) Economic Efficiency, (4) Civic Responsibility. Since the objectives have been widely accepted in many professional circles, and because it seems evident that they will continue to exert influence upon educational thinking, the full list is presented:

The Objectives of Self-Realization

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Basic Principles of Student Teaching

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

Health Knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Aesthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

The Objectives of Human Relationship

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Co-operation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person observes family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

The Objectives of Economic Efficiency

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contributions to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a co-operating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.⁴

After the student has pondered the objectives presented and others which have been formulated he needs to formulate for himself the major objectives of the instructional program and to determine those primary purposes toward which he will direct his own work.

The third step in planning to meet pupils' needs is the development of the curriculum. While the expression "development of the curriculum" has probably confused the student of teaching on many occasions, it is actually not a difficult concept to comprehend. In reality what is meant is the development of educational experiences and activities which will achieve for the pupils the stated objectives. Such a statement is perhaps better understood when it is remembered that "curriculum" means all the meaningful experiences and purposeful activities provided and directed by the school to achieve its objectives. It has been said that education takes place through experiences resulting from the interaction of the individual and his environment. What is desired at this point in program development is the structuring of the educational environment so that by interacting with it the pupils will have the particular experiences which will bring about the desired changes of behavior as indicated by the objectives which have been formulated.

What the student teacher needs are functional guides to teaching—guides which indicate the kinds of experiences which boys and girls should have. It is most likely that the student will find his recently formulated major objectives very general in nature and not functional in the sense of indicating specifically the kinds of pupil activities which lead to attainment of goals. For example, it is not difficult to subscribe to the deve-

4. Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1938, pp. 50, 72, 90, 108.

lopment of civic responsibility as a worthy educational objective, but, until this generalized value or ideal is reduced to curricular experiences and activities that actually develop civic competence and responsibility in boys and girls, the objective is not effective or functional.

It is most necessary, then, that the student teacher break his general objectives into smaller more tangible parts—reduce them, so to speak, to effective behavioral functions. It is at the present point in program development that the student needs to get specific with respect to such questions as: What am I going to do with and for the girls and boys in my class? For example, in my fourth grade group or in my secondary English class: Why am I going to do these things? Exactly what are the needs to be met? What are my purposes? What are the pupils' purposes? What are the specific experiences and activities necessary to meet the needs? What subject matter, skills, and knowledges should be included in the experiences provided and in the actual classwork? Then comes the need for organizing the work program into large blocks and smaller units. Chapter VI deals more specifically with the problems of planning.

The student of teaching in the elementary school makes the application specifically in terms of the level of maturity and development of the particular group and individuals concerned, and of the kinds of experiences the children have had. Thus, the program planned for a third grade group contains basic elements different, in degree at least, from those designed for a sixth grade class. The student planning work in a departmentalized secondary school program deals with similar problems of level of maturity and past experience, but he includes the special elements of the subject field concerned, such as English or algebra. For example, he faces the problem of deciding the subject matter, skills, and knowledge which are to be included in the educational experiences of a ninth grade group in English or algebra.

The important thing—the thing that matters—is what the teacher does with his group of pupils at the present moment and from day to day. Furthermore, what the teacher does will not achieve objectives—or meet needs, because needs are reflected in objectives—unless the philosophic generalizations and the objectives are translated into significant curricular experiences and activities.

Evaluation is presented as the fourth area in the development of an instructional program designed to meet pupils' needs. Actually, evaluation may not be limited to a particular phase of program development. Certainly, it should not be considered a compartmentalized segment of the operation, but rather an integral part of the developmental process. The subject of evalua-

tion is considered so important a part of the instructional program that the whole of Chapters X and XII are devoted to it.

The fifth phase of designing a program of instruction to meet needs is called "redevelopment of the program." What is meant by "redevelopment" is the rethinking, replanning, or redesigning of the instructional program in light of the results of evaluation. The fundamental questions to be answered are: What has evaluation revealed about the program which should be changed and, hence, improved? How can pupils be assisted to realize their basic needs more clearly? What different curricular experiences and activities should be provided in order to meet the needs of pupils better? How can the experiences and activities be made still more meaningful to the boys and girls? These are the kinds of problems with which redevelopment of program is concerned. Like evaluation, the process of redevelopment may not be separated from total program development or left until last to be begun. It too goes on in continuing cycle.

Application of the suggested approach to teaching and learning is concerned basically with two vital problems: determining the common and individual educational needs of children and youth which must be met, and developing an instructional program adequate to meet the needs which are identified. The student of teaching applies the approach most effectively when he formulates a sound educational point of view and implements it in terms of school experiences which are significant to pupils in light of purposes they understand, and which they propose or adopt as their own.

31. The Purposes of Pupils and Teachers Influence Learning.

Roy Barnes was having great difficulty in his eighth grade arithmetic. His teacher, Mr. Horn, told Mr. Barnes, Roy's father, that there was a bare possibility that Roy might receive a passing mark by stretching the probability curve and the teacher's conscience and charitable nature. "But," said Mr. Horn, "so far as Roy's getting any real grasp of the work is concerned, the only possible evaluation is failure. I'm greatly concerned because Roy's tests and records indicate that he can learn and is a bright enough boy." Mr. Barnes admitted that he too was concerned.

When Roy was confronted by his father he admitted his difficulty and summarized his problem by saying, "Well, Pop, it just seems that I can't keep my mind on the problems. Really, some of them don't make sense to me. The other day we had one like this: 'The size of the rectangular openings in a wire fence is $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches long by $4\frac{1}{10}$ inches wide. How much fence will be required to cover three sections if there are fifteen rectangles in each row of a section?' That seemed to me like a hard way to figure how much fence you need. Anyway, the pro-

blem didn't say whether the rectangles ran the long way or the short way along the rows. The kind of problems I like are the ones I figure out on my steer. You know, the one I'm going to enter in the cattle-raising contest at the county fair this summer."

Roy showed his father the records he had been carefully keeping on the cost of raising his steer. He had recorded the original cost of the calf, the number of pounds of each of the feeds at each feeding, and the cost per pound of each kind of feed, which he had computed from the cost of a one-hundred-pound sack. His records included the total cost of each feeding and the total cost of the project by weeks. Actually, he had applied many mathematical principles and processes in compiling his records.

When Mr. Horn came to Roy's house for a conference with Mr. Barnes, the teacher was amazed at the evidence of Roy's mastery of arithmetic. Finally, the teacher exclaimed, "Why, Roy has taught himself more of certain kinds of arithmetic than some of the other pupils know."

Here is a clear example of learning being more meaningful and purposive on the one hand and less on the other. The more the learner sees meaning and purpose in what he is learning, the greater is his chance of success. The converse is also true, the less meaningful and purposive the learning, the greater is the probability of failure. Such statements should not be interpreted to mean that there are two kinds of learning: meaningful and meaningless. What is meant is that some elements in the learning situation are more meaningful to the learner than others. Learning is not meaningful on one hand and meaningless on the other, because the very essence—the hard core—of learning is that it is the means through which the learner discovers meanings and clarifies and applies them. Learning becomes meaningful and purposive to the extent that the learner sees his problems as real and worthwhile. Meaning and purpose are basic to learning.

To declare that meaning and purpose are basic elements in the learning process is not to deny the need and value of hard work or to imply, for that matter, that "once-over-lightly" preparation is sufficient, desirable, or defensible. Too many teachers get pupils to work by increasing the pressure upon them, rather than by changing the method of approach. The usual approach to drill work in the school is a good example. Usually drill work is required of pupils who see no real reason for doing it, who feel no conscious need of it, and who are not far enough along to know what it is about, what is expected, and why it is valuable. When it is properly approached and used, the drill is a powerful teaching-learning device because the pupils are aware that they lack a certain skill or efficiency which they wish to

achieve, and thus they have a conscious desire and need for drill. The change of approach converts meaningless drudgery into stimulating effort, with a resultant increase in performance, because meaning is clarified and purpose achieved.

The student of teaching who recognizes that pupils have purposes for what they do has learned that school is a place in which boys and girls should be permitted to work for themselves. The classroom of such a teacher is not a place in which he starts and stops activity, with pupils waiting until they are told to do the next thing the teacher wants done. Rather, the work in the classroom becomes a challenge to the abilities and talents of pupils, with emphasis upon intrinsic satisfactions here and now, as well as promised fulfillment in the future. Permitting boys and girls to work for themselves instead of the teacher, and getting them to do it, is not an easy procedure, for it demands clarification and a relation of the purposes of pupils and teachers.

If the student of teaching accepts the tenets of Principles 29 and 30 of this chapter, then his purposes in teaching are directed toward the discovery and the meeting of pupils' needs. Many times the needs of a pupil are not recognized by him, or are not clearly seen as areas in which improvement and development are necessary or desirable. When the teacher faces such a problem, it becomes his purpose to help the pupil to recognize or clarify his situation. Many student teachers find such procedures difficult because they have interpreted children from the adult point of view. They have looked upon children as "whittled-down" adults or, in other words, have considered them to be like adults in every respect but size. Study and research have revealed that children differ qualitatively from adults, and it is from such a point of view that the needs, interests, and purposes of children must be interpreted. From a child-centered frame of reference, the student of teaching is able to utilize the child's interests and needs as important factors in the efficiency of learning and in the child's own well-being.

Other conditions which make it difficult for pupils and teachers to relate their purposes are the demands of society upon the individual and the school. The school is a social institution created by society primarily for the purpose of its own self-perpetuation through the production of citizens capable of effectively participating in the accepted social procedures. Consequently, there are certain objectives in school and purposes in teaching which society expects to be achieved. These may be difficult for the child to recognize or to relate to his own interests and purposes. Moreover, they may be regarded by the teacher as so obviously necessary and desirable that he sees little need for or value in relating them to the pupil's purposes.

The importance of the social setting of learning and the need for the socialization of the individual have complicated the problem of clarifying teaching purposes and of relating them to pupil purposes. To overcome the difficulties involved, too many students of teaching have resorted to undesirable extrinsic devices for motivating boys and girls in school. Desire to make high grades, to please the teacher, to escape punishment, to do what associates are doing, or to win a reward are examples of the usual use of motivating devices. All of them are extrinsic in the sense that they are apart from the activity itself. Many of those named are natural and not harmful unless abused. Due to their extrinsic nature, however, a cessation of activity on the part of the learner usually results when the effect of the device is removed. Evidence of the fact is seen in the failure of many pupils to continue activities in later life which they have successfully experienced in school. While incentives may have occasional good results they are usually uneconomical and ordinarily ineffective. They are many times such a practical, obvious, and simple solution to the student teacher's problem of motivation that he sees little need to search further for more effective ways of stimulating his pupils to learn.

No classroom procedure or technique is defensible unless it gives due regard to the factors which make learning dynamic. Those teaching procedures which motivate pupils through the intrinsic value of their activities are the most powerful stimulants to learning. Intrinsic motivation means that the pupil sees inherent value in what he is doing. Its driving power is the desire for something which is felt by the learner. It exists only when the pupil sees the purposes of the activity, accepts it as a desirable goal, and adopts it as his own. The most powerful intrinsic motivation is that arising from the consciousness of a need. As has been said, the successful student teacher, the one who causes real effort and brings about true learning, motivates pupils through needs that they feel, or that the teacher reveals to them, and which they recognize and are willing to strive to satisfy.

The basis of all successful teaching lies in making learning meaningful and purposive. The basis of meaningful activity by the pupil is the recognition of value either in the present or in the foreseeable future. When pupils see value in what they are doing it results in mutual recognition of interests and effective relationship of purposes by both teacher and pupils.

32. A Good Program of Student Teaching Recognizes No Single Best Method of Teaching.

What is method? What does the teacher do when he teaches? If there are acceptable methods of teaching, how does the teacher select the one he uses? Is method related to the teacher's personality? And so the questions pour from the stu-

dents of teaching, each query becoming the stimulus for another question.

Probably, a good way to begin to answer questions about method is to analyze some of the basic elements of teaching. In the first place, teaching is not learning for the pupil. That is to say, if the analysis of the learning process presented in Principle 27 of this chapter is accepted, the teacher cannot learn for the pupil. The pupil has to learn for himself, and he does it through his own activity. Thus, the only thing that the teacher can do for the pupil is to direct and guide his activity in such a way that the desired learning takes place. The teacher guides and directs the pupil's activity primarily through the medium of a special environment designed to produce certain desired learnings. When the pupil interacts with the environment, his behavior is changed and conditioned in the desired way. The changes in behavior are the learnings which are wanted. The teacher becomes the key factor in the whole teaching-learning situation because he is the designer of the environment required to produce the desired results. Moreover, he directs the pupil's interaction with the environment—a process necessary to achieve the desired changes in behavior or learnings.

Experienced engineers know that there are many good ways of designing machines—there is no single best method. Similarly, in education, a variety of good teaching methods are being successfully used. There is little doubt that each of the methods has made a worthy contribution to the learning of boys and girls. In the hands of a skilled teacher, many of the methods have value but there is little reason to believe that the teacher should limit his teaching to only one method. Account must be taken of the fact that each teacher and each teaching-learning situation is different from every other, and that what produces results for one teacher, in his particular situation and with his individual personality, may not succeed for another. Compared to engineering, education poses far more elusive problems that oftentimes contain a great number of intangible factors. For this reason, it is more likely that there will be several acceptable ways of handling a teaching-learning situation instead of only one way. From a number of acceptable methods the student teacher must be assisted and encouraged to develop his own composite method, appropriate to his philosophy and personality. In such a process, the supervising teacher does not furnish a detailed plan for the student and chart his every move, but rather guides him in developing his own method.

33. Effective Teaching Provides for Differences among Pupils.

The American public school must of necessity develop its program in terms of cosmopolitan school population. Such an adjustment is necessary because, in theory at least, the

school is committed to serving all pupils of school age who present themselves for admission. The admission of the children of all the people has brought into the school a population that is widely diversified in many ways. While most pupils of the same age group have some needs in common, the school population taken as a whole exhibits wide differences in cultural background, socioeconomic status, ability, and interest. What is more, individual pupils are likely to differ from each other in almost any trait they possess.

Why are school programs organized in different ways? Why is the daily classroom work organized in one particular way within a school or within some grades of a school and differently in others? The answers to the questions lead to the conclusion that different kinds of efforts are being made to provide for the needs of the cosmopolitan population of the schools. The efforts are aimed at adjusting the school program to the needs of each pupil and to provide work of such a nature as to meet effectively his educational needs both common and individual. The aim is to develop an adequate program in each phase of modern education and to organize the work of the phases into an acceptable total educational program.

An educational program designed for the masses may overlook the individual pupil because such factors as concern for the welfare of groups can easily receive primary consideration in program development. In the face of mass education and group instruction, sight of the individual pupil should not be lost for he is the basic learning unit. The school, therefore, cannot afford to attempt to mold pupils to a uniform standard or pattern; to do so would be to ignore the differences which exist among pupils here and now and those which will characterize them in the future.

It seems important, then, that the student teacher become familiar with the fundamentals of various types of basic teaching methods in order that he may make the appropriate application to a particular situation and that he may provide adequately for the varying needs of the pupils. The following brief descriptions of several selected basic methods are intended to summarize the essential fundamental principles of each of the techniques presented.

The first method to be discussed is the problem-solving method because it is widely utilized and successfully applied by many teachers in different types of teaching-learning situations. The exponents of the problem-solving method argue that since real life consists of a succession of problems, the development of the ability to solve problems gives the pupil a means of meeting actual situations both here and now and in the future. Furthermore, it is declared that the ability to analyze new situations and to meet them intelligently is the best preparation for a happy and successful life.

Problems exist in almost numberless situations in every area of the curriculum. They may be created by the pupils, offered by the teacher, derived from daily experience, suggested in textbooks and other teaching materials, recommended by parents, or found in the community and the world. It is impossible, of course, for the school to attempt to teach pupils how to attack every kind of problem they may later encounter. Probably, the chief goal is to help pupils learn how to solve problems and through such means to develop their ability to gather facts, analyze data through critical thinking, and make decisions on the basis of available evidence. The relationship of problem-solving and reflective thinking lies in teaching the child how to think and in assuming that he will be able to apply the techniques to the multiplicity of problem situations existent in his experience.

All problems are not solved by systematic methods. Some are solved by merely applying generalizations which are already known. Others are attacked and solved by trial and error. There is, however, a generally recognized procedure for a scientific attack upon problems. It was set forth by John Dewey and is widely accepted. Dewey's technique is essentially the analysis of a complete act of thought and consists of five rather distinct steps:

i. *A felt difficulty.*

The individual is first aware of a perplexity or problem.

ii. *Its location and definition.*

The exact character or nature of the difficulty must be known before a plausible solution can be suggested.

iii. *Suggestion of possible solution.*

An hypothesis or guessed solution is proposed in the light of what is known about the problem. Frequently more than one plausible solution will be recognized.

iv. *Development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion.*

Through reflection the consequences of a proposed solution are developed.

v. *Further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection.*

If the suggested solution can be verified, it is accepted. If not, some modification of it, or some new proposal must be tested.

In applying the suggested problem-solving procedure in actual work with boys and girls, the student teacher must be able to organize and direct school experiences which promote reflective thinking. The procedures for attacking problems are almost as multiple and varied as the sources of the problems themselves. The approach may be made through some form of group activity, through the teacher leading the initial thinking

on a problem, or through the medium of a project which represents still another method of attack. Whatever the procedure, the steps suggested by Dewey will serve as a helpful guide to the student teacher and pupils as they select and define a problem for study, search for data and collect it in a systematic fashion, use ideas and experiences related to the problem, formulate tentative solutions, try out the proposed solutions, suspend judgment, weigh and decide, draw conclusions on the basis of the evidence collected, and finally, apply the newly learned principle to an immediate problematical situation.

Perhaps the best approach to the problem-solving method is made when the principal experiences in a teaching-learning situation are organized into and around the consideration and solution of problems. The value of the method lies in creating the awareness of the pupils to the technique, and in developing insofar as possible the ability and attitude of boys and girls so that they may use the procedure in solving the problems which they face in their daily lives.

Probably one of the most common applications of the problem procedure in actual work with boys and girls is the project method, which insists that the pupil choose and plan his own project. Historically, the project method was associated with the physical construction of the elementary school classroom and with the teaching of manual arts, agriculture, and vocational subjects in the secondary school. In early practice the project included a practical problem planned and carried to completion by the pupil. At its inception the most obvious features of the project involved a problem which was concrete in nature, which entailed the use of physical materials, and which took place in a natural environment. A project now implies a completed material object which when consummated presents a physical unity. Thus, a project is interpreted to include an assemblage of materials coupled with a physical presentation.

Kilpatrick has identified the project with "whole-hearted, purposeful activity." This designation by Kilpatrick, however, is open to question on the grounds that no one method of teaching should or could have a monopoly upon wholehearted, purposeful activity because such a condition should pervade every teaching-learning situation. Bossing defines the project more in terms of its original conception when he says: "The project is a significant, practical unit of activity of a problematic nature, planned and carried to completion by the student in a natural manner and involving the use of physical materials to complete the unit of experience."

6. Bossing, Nelson L., *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942, p. 574.

Desirable characteristic features of the project method include assumption by the pupil of the responsibility for his own learning, selection and planning of the project by the pupil, identification of the pupil with the task instead of the imposition of responsibility by an adult, and placement of emphasis upon practical experience through relation of the pupil to real-life situations.

Observable in recent efforts to improve teaching has been a trend to shift the emphasis away from the teacher and toward the pupil as the centre of instructional activity and interest. The trend has been characterized by evolutionary progress from the teacher-dominated "lesson-hearing" recitation or lecture to the pupil-centered situation. The commensurate aspects of classroom procedure have shifted from the more or less traditional teacher-centered approach with its questionable motivation of learning and its lack of encouragement in the practice of social co-operation to the pupil-centered procedure. In the latter approach emphasis is placed upon socializing the individual and providing opportunity to learn and develop social ideals, attitudes, and values through participation in group activities. The effort to socialize the classroom situation is stimulated by the need to produce citizens who function in a social order based upon co-operation and recognition of common needs and interests. It is believed that the best way to prepare boys and girls to live effectively in such a society is to let them function here and now in the school in the same way that they will be called upon to live when they become adult citizens of the community.

The pupil-centered approach is characterized by much activity in which undertakings are planned, initiated, carried out, and evaluated by the entire class, or sections of it. The teacher serves as director, guide, and resource-person as he promotes pupil-activated growth by capitalizing upon pupil initiative and leadership. Pupils develop individually through assuming responsibility for the success of the group activity and by acquiring the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and habits which will enable them to contribute effectively to group effort.

A study of individual differences has revealed the need for improving the system of mass instruction which the schools have been forced to adopt because of the pressure of large numbers of pupils to be educated. The classification of pupils into grades and groups for purposes of instruction has led to the use of "group methods," instead of the rather highly individualized program employed in the ungraded schools of the colonial and early national period. It is recognized, of course, that there is need to attend to pupils individually because of the differences in their traits and talents and also because of the diversity of their achievement. To help to meet the challenge of individual

differences several approaches have been made in addition to the differentiation of teaching methods which has already been described. The more important of the other approaches to the solution of some of the problems of providing for the individual needs of boys and girls will be briefly discussed.

Variations in promotional policies and procedures, including semiannual, special, double, and trial promotions, have been introduced through the years. In applying any of the promotional schemes it is necessary to take into account the effect upon the physical, mental, emotional, and social growth and development of the child. The superior child who may need to be advanced faster than his normal progress would permit may, if crowded, become socially or psychologically maladjusted. Similarly, the average or inferior pupil who may need to be accelerated because of age and maturity may experience difficulty and psychological disturbance because of inability to achieve at the level of the advanced group. The success of any plan of promotion depends upon the common sense, attitude, and professional skill of the teachers who use it.

Ability grouping or homogeneous grouping as it is sometimes called is another effort to provide for the varying needs of boys and girls. Usually, intelligence or achievement is the basis of the division of the group into different sections of ability. Actually, of course, a group formed on the basis of one trait is not homogeneous in any other respect if, in fact, it is similar in terms of the one ability used for purposes of grouping. Research has repeatedly revealed wide ranges in achievement among so-called homogeneous groups of pupils. Studies show that achievement ranges are wide under all grouping schemes. In fact, it is known that the variability in achievement in ability groups having three sections or levels is about eighty-three per cent as great as in unselected groups.⁷

The superiority of homogeneous grouping has not been proved conclusively. There is little evidence to support the claim that ability grouping deals more successfully with the problem of individual differences than does heterogeneous grouping. Especially is the statement applicable to schools having a modern program of education. Certainly, ability grouping is more nearly related to subject-centered curricula than to the modern programs aimed at the all-round development of the individual child. Many educators do not favor ability grouping because they feel that it is undemocratic. They contend that the destiny of pupils tends to be determined by assigning them to groups on the basis of criteria whose validity is open to question. Moreover, it is contended that the grouping of pupils on

7. Otto, Henry J., "Organization and Administration of Elementary Education" in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Walter S. Monroe, editor, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950, pp. 377-378.

the basis of ability tends to create intellectual snobbery and an attitude of superiority on the part of the bright pupils, and a feeling of inferiority among the slow group. It is felt that an aristocracy of brains would be as objectionable as one of wealth, for example, in its effect upon personality development here and now and upon the sympathies and understandings of people in later life. Other educators point out that home-school relationships are more likely to be poor under a plan of ability grouping. The contention is that while the parents of the bright pupils may be satisfied to have their children in the "fast" group, it is not common to find a parent who wants his child to be classified as a slow learner. In addition, it is pointed out that children in the "slow" group have more opportunity to become maladjusted because of the pressure applied by parents to increase the pupils' achievement enough to warrant promotion to a faster learning group.

No doubt some type of grouping for instruction is necessary, and no matter what scheme of classification is employed on a school-wide basis, there will probably be need for grouping within classes to meet the needs of individual pupils. For example, while some of the pupils are working on a selected activity under the direct guidance of the teacher, the remainder of the class may be busily engaged in other activities such as reading, painting, or drawing. These latter activities may be in progress within the room or even in other parts of the building.

It seems certain, however, that there is a trend away from ability grouping, especially in the elementary school. The criterion of grouping becoming more and more popular is the effect of the particular arrangement upon the welfare of the whole child, rather than the prospect of producing only scholastic improvement. The school, however, has a responsibility to the majority of the pupils and any plan of grouping must contribute to the fulfillment of the duty. It becomes necessary, then, to consider the welfare of the group as well as the benefit of the individual. Thus, flexibility becomes a fundamental characteristic of any sound plan of grouping. Probably, one of the soundest means of grouping pupils for purposes of instruction is first to secure pertinent information about the children from cumulative records, teachers, and parents. Then to form groups in terms of the best analysis of the data which appears to locate the child in a group and with a teacher so that he will have the greatest chance of success in light of his maximum potentialities.

The individualization of instruction is the goal which the student of teaching exerts his efforts to reach. It means the adaptation of teaching to the varying abilities of pupils and may be accomplished in degree without necessarily changing grade organization, classification procedure, or promotional policy. The principal variables are the amount and quality of the work done

although some teachers vary the period of time allotted for the completion of tasks. There is no formal grouping of pupils into slow, average, or fast groups. Adjustments may be made in terms of specific situations, of individual differences in needs, interests, and abilities, of minimum levels of achievement, of the instructional materials and activities employed, and of the quality of work done. Each pupil is considered on the basis of his ability and interest in a particular area or part of the work. For example, in reading, the brighter pupils are encouraged to read the most challenging books, while the children with reading problems are encouraged to read the easier materials and those designed to improve their reading skills.

Such procedures when expertly employed appear to represent a satisfactory solution to many problems of meeting the varying needs of individual pupils. Many educators are coming to believe that such methods may represent even a better solution to the problems of providing for individual differences than does the formal grouping of pupils.

Some schools attempt to solve the problem of meeting individual needs through reorganization and enrichment of the curriculum. The schools would appear to be pursuing proper procedure to the extent that they reorganize that many problems of pupil progress no doubt stem from a lack of adjustment between the child and the curriculum. On the other hand, it may be argued that the welfare of the pupil is best promoted when the program of the school is varied, organized, and enriched in such a way that it is constantly adapted to the needs, interests, and abilities of pupils. It must be remembered that the complete individual is the learning unit and that the integrated nature of the child makes possible the acquisition of various experiences simultaneously. All the activities provided and directed by the school should contribute to an integrated learning experience. The educational experiences of boys and girls must be harmonized and articulated with life outside the school if learning experiences are to be based upon the psychological nature of the learner. The normally integrated nature of the pupil justifies effort in providing unified experiences from one activity, subject, or area of work to another.

The thesis that learning is a process of changing behavior through experience implies that the more varied the experiences of the learners the more they are likely to learn and the more easily they will learn. The bases of learning for boys and girls are found in their **living** because learning begins where pupils are and progresses in relation to meaning and purpose.

PROBLEMS

1. Describe the nature of the learning process.
2. List the implications of the nature of learning for the teacher in his work with children.

3. Outline the role of the teacher.
4. Define "pupil needs" and list the basic common needs which have been determined.
5. Outline briefly three different studies aimed at discovering pupils' needs.
6. List the means you may employ to determine the individual needs of a pupil.
7. List ways in which pupils may be included in the processes of determining their needs and of planning to meet them.
8. Select a pupil from your group and make a special study of his individual needs.
9. Outline the areas necessary to the development of a functional instructional program.
10. Determine the proper implications of the needs theory for the particular level at which you are working.
11. Outline the major objectives of your instructional program and list the primary purposes toward which you intend to direct your work. On your level of work, indicate the kinds of experiences and activities to be provided in order to achieve the stated objectives and purposes.
12. Outline the purposes you hope to achieve through a learning experience you are directing or will direct. Discover the purposes of the pupils and determine whether or not their goals are the same as yours. Plan how to assist pupils to relate the two groups of objectives if they are different.
13. Outline the main elements of the teaching methods presented in the chapter.
14. In broad outline indicate how you would evaluate your instructional program and utilize the results to redevelop it.

Planning For Teaching

If properly conceived, planning for teaching can be one of the most fascinating as well as one of the most fruitful aspects of the entire educational process. Here, in the planning stages, the creative and imaginative teacher has the opportunity to make the most of his talents of originality. However, regardless of the amount of experience, ingenuity, and inventiveness possessed by the teacher, everyone must do some planning for teaching.

Efficient and wise planning is the basis of successful teaching. Planning begins with the goals of the teaching-learning situation for the time-block under consideration, moves through creatively conceived means of achieving those goals, and ends with valid plans for evaluating the efforts of all persons involved. Educational planning, however, is different from certain aspects of architectural or engineering planning in that planning in teaching is a continuous process and certain variations may be made even while the project is under way. It becomes apparent, therefore, that the teacher may continue to change plans during the actual teaching process; however, pre-planning is essential to good teaching.

It is generally recognized that pupils should have an important share in planning. This does not mean that the student teacher does less planning. It means, in fact, that he must do more careful and thoughtful planning. Pupil growth is dependent upon careful selection and arrangement of purposeful activities which are based on children's abilities, interests, and needs. Planning is based on knowing where each pupil is, for growth

begins where the individual learner is now. Different areas of study and different kinds of learning experiences of course require different types of plans.

There are three major types of plans: plans for the whole semester or year, plans for each major block or unit which relate it to the semester's work, and plans for each day's work to see that it contributes to the accomplishment of the whole.

Plans should be made in terms of the goals to be achieved. Although each teacher will establish his own goals, it is important to consider the goals which are generally recognized as significant. The four major goals of education as stated by the Educational Policies Commission are rather widely accepted. They are :

1. Objectives of self-realization—the educated person.
2. Objectives of human relations—the educated member of family and community.
3. Objectives of economic security—the educated producer and consumer.
4. Objectives of civic responsibility—the educated citizen.¹

In planning the year's, the semester's, or the day's work, the teacher should make sure that it contributes to one or more of these basic goals, and that it contributes specifically to the content, skills, and habits peculiar to that area of study. The real job is to plan the work so that the broad general purposes of education function in the actual teaching-learning situation. Since the large goals are general, the teacher must list specific skills, habits, and attitudes which in combination contribute to the major goal and then see that pupils have opportunities to practice these skills, habits, and attitudes.

As stated, the plan should be a flexible guide which allows for modifications as the work progresses. These are some of the characteristics of effective plans:

1. They are made by those who are to use them.
2. They are thorough, flexible, and usable.
3. They provide for the point or level from which the teaching is to start and provide effective direction.
4. They contain: statements of goals, procedures, and content skills to be developed; wide variety of materials, wide range of pupil activities; and methods of evaluation to be used.
5. They provide for group and individual interests, abilities, and needs.

Each plan is tied to what has gone before and paves the way for future action. The relatedness of one part to another must be so real that a sequential development is assured.

1. Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, 1938, Washington, D.C., pp. 50, 72, 90, 108.

34. Teaching Plans Are Made for the Pupils Who Are to Be Taught.

As mentioned before, one of the basic principles of modern education is that learning will be of value only insofar as the learner is able to see that the learning activities are related to goals which he understands and accepts as his own. And in the development of a plan for a teaching-learning experience, the objectives or the reasons for the study should be developed in terms of the pupils' needs. Perhaps the best means of doing this is to develop the plans in class with the teacher and the pupils working co-operatively. The pupils then identify themselves with the plan because they have discussed it and have furnished suggestions for it. It has been "their plan," not just "the teacher's plan." If the boys and girls do not have any responsibility for the making of the plan, it is like the old-fashioned assignment from the textbook, exemplified by the teacher's remark, "You don't need to be told what's in the assignment! Just read pages 174 through 192 as I've told you to do!" Plans without pupil participation become something more or less distasteful, required to be carried out, but not interesting and meaningful enough to be remembered or used in the future.

In order to develop competency in democratic planning, the pupil should encounter democracy as a part of his school experience. The boy or girl must assume some measure of responsibility for that plan which he is to carry out as a part of a group or as an individual. It should be pointed out, however, that the successful teacher does not relinquish his role as the guiding influence in the development of plans. The teacher has a tremendous responsibility and must always exercise his leadership for the good of the group.

The teacher's responsibility in planning is one which requires a close look at the composition of the class and a real understanding of individual and group problems. The extent to which teacher-pupil planning can be used is largely dependent upon the maturity of the members of the group and the extent to which the processes of democratic group thinking have been learned. However, it should not be assumed that the immaturity of a group or its lack of experience in group planning should serve as an adequate excuse for not using democratic procedures. Such immaturity merely indicates that the teacher should start where the students are and work with them to develop their understandings and abilities. This matter in itself illustrates the necessity for the teacher to study the group carefully prior to developing any far-reaching plans. Teacher-pupil planning begins in the kindergarten and continues through the twelfth grade.

35. Teaching Plans Formulated in an Atmosphere of Freedom Provide Richer and Broader Learning Experiences for Pupils.

The educational program should seek to provide an educa-

tive environment for the optimal development of all educable levels of youth regardless of social or economic status. The teacher seeks to provide for each pupil the fullest possible experience in democratic living within the school. This requires active participation in group living and practice in the creation of values. The teacher must have a personal knowledge of each pupil and his needs and must be able to plan so that each child may discover and extend his interests and abilities to meet these needs. As noted, learning takes place when there is a reconstruction of experience to produce a change of behavior.

The teacher, in order to have an attitude of freedom in planning, must thoroughly understand the basic concepts and principles of our democratic faith and must feel the responsibility of providing the young with experiences that will contribute maximally to the production of desirable changes in their personalities.

36. Long-Range Plans Are Necessary for Effective Teaching.

If a teacher is to do effective work, he must plan far ahead in order to include most meaningfully the material which will be best suited to that which he is striving to teach. By such long-range planning he will be able to collect more effective material for the pupils' use in class. He will be able to revise his plans to fit the class needs and be in a better position to meet the individual needs. The plan becomes a base from which the teacher works in guiding the class in the most desirable activities.

Through long-range planning, the teacher will be able to carry out in sequence those objectives which have been developed for and by the particular class. In the planning for work in advance, the teacher and pupils plan the **who**, the **where**, the **what**, the **when**, and the **how**. Part of the plans emanate from the teacher; some, in a truly democratic situation, stem from the pupils; and final decisions are reached co-operatively. The teacher's preplanning becomes the foundation for the pupils' enrichment. Through long-range planning, the teacher gains a feeling of security and adequacy that will enable him to guide the class more effectively. He becomes conscious of the need for the allotment of time so that too much time is not used for unimportant details and the necessary amount is allowed for the important things. In addition, the teacher is better able to plan for individual differences by having formed some attitude toward the class participation.

Certain general objectives will obviously run as strong currents through practically all long-range planning. For example, every good teacher strives to assist boys and girls in learning to work together effectively. Schools should help persons to grow

in social understanding and sensitivity. All planning should emphasize accuracy, quality, and completeness. In practically all individual or group work, teachers will stress the importance of seeking, finding, weighing, and utilizing pertinent information. The communication of ideas in the most effective manner, whether written or oral, will become a prime objective. From these ideas it becomes possible for one to understand what is meant by "general objectives" that run through all long-range planning.

Each pupil and teacher who may be planning for the future must also attempt to discover and to formulate specific objectives to be achieved in the work being planned. The principal question to be answered is : what specific ideas or concepts should be gained by the boys and girls from the areas or problems to be studied ? It is usually desirable to list all of the specific objectives which seem essential or pertinent ; however, it is necessary to point out that the teacher cannot always list all of these objectives at one time for any period of study. It must be remembered that the building of concepts is a slow process and takes place over a long period of time. Many experiences are involved in such a process ; therefore, many different ideas will be considered in the **how**, **when**, and **where** of the teaching, and new objectives may be added as the work progresses.

After the general and specific objectives have been stated, the teacher and pupils should formulate a tentative plan of activities and experiences. One of the great values of long-range planning is that it makes it possible to include a wide variety of worthwhile activities which can be woven together into a broad and colorful fabric of experience.

The teacher will need to read widely on the subject or subjects under study. Curriculum guides and other professional materials can help tremendously ; however, these should serve only as guides, rather than as substitutes for the teacher's initiative or creativity in planning. The student of teaching will need to explore, review, and study a wide variety of materials and resources relating to the area of study. Teacher-resource books, pupil textbooks, library books, and other materials should be collected and used. Flat pictures, charts, films, slides, radio programs, television presentations, and other media should be considered in developing the plans for teaching well in advance of the time for use, so that the teacher will know just when, where, and how they can best be utilized.

In helping the student teacher formulate the long-range plan, supervising teachers frequently perform the following activities :

1. Familiarize the student teacher with what has gone before.
2. Help him see its relation to the major goals.
3. Insist that he master the content, ideas, and skills involved. This should be a period of highly motivated and intensive study for the

student teacher, for he cannot afford to be hampered by lack of knowledge when he assumes the role of teacher.

4. Lead the student teacher to acquaint himself with teaching materials and resources.
5. Help him see that proper motivation is essential to effective teaching. Plan definite ways by which motivation is to be assured.
6. Encourage him to discover the readability of suggested materials he plans to use—providing as wide a range of readability as is needed by the pupils.
7. Suggest that the student teacher make a bibliography of suggested readings for himself and for the children. He should know what these materials contain so that his recommendations earn respect through their validity and usefulness.
8. List various methods and procedures to be used. Help the student teacher understand that different jobs require varying means—that one child is challenged by one process and another is completely untouched by it.

The long-range plan is prepared and weighed in the light of principles which govern effective planning and sound learning. The supervising teacher and student teacher involved in the plan should have a complete copy of it. It is the design and the foundation which supports all the superstructure erected during the period of teaching. It constitutes a guarantee that the parts fit together in a meaningful unit or whole.

Effective long-range planning includes suitable techniques for evaluating the work. The plans should be carefully considered, and the procedures should be made compatible with the teaching techniques and the desired learning. More specific details relating to appraising progress and evaluating results will be presented in Chapter X.

37. Short-Period or Block Planning Goes beyond Subject-Matter Organization.

After the student teacher has visualized the direction the work is to take and what it is to include, the next step is the determination of the activities and experiences for which he is to be directly responsible. Then comes a period of even more intensive study and preparation, for this is *his* job. Of course, the supervising teacher will help and advise him in the making of his teaching plans trying through conferences and at other times to guarantee for him and the children for whom he is responsible a successful experience.

For many years the term "unit plan for teaching" has been used in educational circles. When this plan was first developed, it was based upon sound principles emphasizing the importance of the individual characteristics of the learners and the significance of building the activities of teaching about some central, unifying theme or problem. The "unit" method, however, has come into disrepute in some areas because of the abusive manner in which it has been used by some teachers and systems. Once a unit was developed it was passed on from teacher to teacher

and used in all types of situations without any real regard for the learner or his needs. Therefore, when consideration is given to the development of short-term teaching plans, the same basic ideas involved in the original "unit" method approach can be included; however, the term "unit" should not be interpreted in such a way that would indicate a "canned" set of lessons or a body of knowledge or activities that could be handed down from one teacher to another or from one group of pupils to another.

The short-period teaching plan, or the plan which some persons might designate as the "unit" approach, is characterized by many of the same elements which might be used to describe the long-range plan. This shorter experience in learning is closely related to the larger area of study and together they should form a unified experience for the learner. The short-period teaching plan is organized around some central theme, problem, or problems. The specific objectives to be realized during the work must contribute to the realization of the objectives of the over-all, long-range plan.

Some suggestions for the development of the short-term or unit teaching plans are :

1. Determine the pupil interests, needs, and experiences at this particular point and provide for them through the scope of the content, activities, and types of assignments.
2. Identify and select areas of interest and/or problems to be studied.
3. Provide for genuine motivation. This is often most successfully done through student teachers' plans for pupil planning. Pupil planning usually occurs in the initial stages, where the student teacher and the pupils chart the direction of the learning experiences in the light of their interests.
4. Determine the methods best suited to the job. The plan should contain definite, specific provisions as to how the learning is to take place—what the teacher is to do and what the pupils are to do.
5. Make plans that will contain a range of activities. Move from one experience to another in such a way that activities are related and integrated. Items which should receive consideration in the planning are:
 - a. Tasks for the individual and for the group.
 - b. Assignments—to care for individual differences and to motivate learning.
 - c. Problems.
 - d. Types of information needed and where to find it.
 - e. Board work.
 - f. Reports or floor talks.
 - g. Library work.
 - h. Forums, panels, debates.
 - i. Laboratory experiences (and the classroom may well be the laboratory).
 - j. Field trips, excursions.
 - k. Illustrative materials and resource persons.

1. Ways and means to be used to reorganize and redirect experiences.
6. Provide for work-study periods under teacher supervision. Leave pupils free to work. The teacher is the co-worker.
7. Prepare materials that are teacher made.
8. Prepare tests or other evaluative criteria so that objectives set for the area to be covered may be tested.
9. Provide for means of relating the work to the out-of-school activities of the pupils.
10. Indicate the estimated time limits when various phases of the work should be completed.

The student teacher needs to know the ground he expects to cover and must look far ahead in order to make the plans that will include what needs to be learned. He makes basic plans which the pupils build on with questions, suggestions, and the telling of experiences. Before the work on a unified experience starts the teacher and pupils list the goals; the teacher selects and gathers reading and other resource materials for the different ability levels of children and for himself. The pupils are alert to collecting and bringing in resource materials. The teacher makes a tentative outline of what he hopes to accomplish, listing purposes and the kinds of experiences necessary to bringing about learning. He decides on the concepts he hopes will be clarified and developed by the pupils through this study. The student teacher and the pupils together discuss the work to be done and decide on areas to be explored, problems to be solved, and questions to be answered by the study. From day to day they plan together various learnings which the pupils need, and they follow these into new learnings. They evaluate each finished segment of the work. They plan for succeeding steps and then move ahead as the work is completed and as evaluations are made.

Every unified experience of teaching should contain :

1. Reading for skills.
2. Reading for information.
3. Reading for enjoyment.
4. Listening, writing, and speaking.
5. Pupil-teacher planning.
6. Evaluation and sharing of learning.

Whether the idea for the unit or area of study comes from the pupils or from the teacher, it is the teacher's job to make it a real and meaningful experience based on the interests and needs of the particular group of children which he teaches.

38. Individual Lesson Plans Serve as Guides to Desirable Classroom Experiences.

A lesson plan is a specific guide for the day's work that is necessary in order to make definite and proper provision for

the carrying out of a part of the long-range or unit plan. It is one phase of the larger problem. It should be carefully prepared with a clear conception of its contribution to the total learning situation.

The continuity and the sequential development in the long-range plan and the relatedness of the unit plans should make the planning of each day's lesson a relatively simple matter. Its direction has been determined, for its purpose is to insure that each day's activities move forward the whole purpose. The daily plan cannot be conceived in any relation except as a logical and psychological outgrowth of the two preliminary plans. This does not mean that the daily plan is unimportant. It is one of the most important and operationally functional types of planning.

No beginning teacher can afford to appear before a group of children without a carefully prepared plan for the day's work. Student teachers certainly should write the plans and receive the help of the supervising teacher before trying to use them. This is of the utmost importance since there should never be a chance of the student teacher's appearing before the class without knowing exactly what he is going to do.

Although there is much disagreement as to the amount of detail to be included in the daily plan, these elements have received wide acceptance :

1. The day's objectives or purposes formulated in their relation to the unit objectives, teacher's objectives, pupil objectives.
2. Activities:
 - a. Procedures—order of activities, transition from one to another, variety.
 - b. Blocks of subject matter, skills, and concepts.
3. Expected outcomes.
4. Time budget for the various aspects or phases of the day's work—as a guide to prevent waste of time or loss of direction.
5. Illustrations in sufficient quantity and variety; visualizing clearly how each illustration is to serve the purposes and determining not to hurry to generalizations. Too many illustrations are better than too few.
6. Statements of questions or problems which are to serve as unifying, clarifying, or synthesizing agents. Summarizing elements are important.
7. Assignment: clear, definite, specific—*what* is to be done, *how* it is to be done, *why* it is to be done. Help the pupil plan so that the assignment arises naturally from something the pupils are doing in relation to the unit objectives. This planning may lead into further related activities. Encourage the student teacher to plan so that he develops the assignment co-operatively with the pupils. They will then more likely be motivated by the purposes of the assignment. Furthermore, individual differences will be cared for more easily. Help the student teacher to anticipate difficulties and provide for them. Consider with him the study habits which his assignments foster. Help him to sense the psychological moment for making an assignment.

The daily plan is flexible, saves time, frees the teacher from anxiety, and allows him freedom for going along with the activity of the moment. It weaves together threads of each day's activities into a fabric the design of which was created by the long-range plan.

The lesson plan is the teacher's reminder of achievements and objectives to be reached in the day's work. It should contain the teacher's objectives, for his own use, and pupil objectives to be developed with the members of the class by definitely planned processes and procedures. The plan should contain activities and suggested study material to be used by the class, with the teacher in the background to guide and direct the learning process. To be able to guide capably, the teacher should possess a comprehensive understanding of the subject matter, materials, and possible activities that could be used for meeting any difficulties that might arise. He needs to understand his class collectively and individually and to be able to see that in the forming of committees or work groups the responsibilities are placed according to the abilities of the pupil—to bring out the best possible personal development. He must know the most effective teaching techniques and how to use them efficiently. The plan used for a former class may not fit the one in progress because of individual differences and varied experiences of the class members. The teaching goals and the class goals may be the same in each class but method of accomplishment may be widely different.

In the long-range plan many important aspects of lesson planning have already been mentioned; many of the objectives will have been determined through the long-range or the unit plan. The daily lesson plan is primarily dependent upon the general plan and should be an integral part of it. The daily plan should not be too exhaustive, for learning is a slow process. It is better to have done a lesser program well than to cover more ground imperfectly.

In the planning of the daily work the teacher should have an active imagination that will enable him to live through in advance, mentally and emotionally, the experiences he hopes to provide for the class. There are commonly two kinds of lesson plans—the memorized and the written. The memorized plan visualizes the expected activities of the class, and the teacher plans mentally for situations as he believes they will be. It requires less time for preparation and will not be misplaced, but because the span of memory is short, there is a possibility that the teacher may not remember the details clearly and may overlook some important activities or other parts of the plan. If the plan has been written in an orderly manner he can see any discrepancies in it more clearly and revise it to meet the needs more effectively. The written plan is definite and clarifies thinking. It makes for orderly development of the plan in proper sequence.

It gives the teacher more freedom in teaching and holding the interest of the class. Being ready gives the teacher a feeling of adequacy and poise that enables him to create interest and promote the activities of the class.

A good lesson plan should have the following :

1. A well formulated plan.
2. Good assignment.
3. A good summary.
4. Provision for individual differences.
5. Inclusion of pivotal questions.
6. Review.
7. Inclusion of important illustrations.
8. Content materials.
9. Motivation techniques.
10. Evaluation techniques.
11. Rough allocation of time to each phase of the lesson.
12. Attention to apperceptive learning—new related to the old.²

PROBLEMS

1. In planning for teaching, what does each of the following contribute :
 - a. Democracy is planning ?
 - b. An understanding of a variety of techniques ?
 - c. A wide acquaintanceship with materials of instruction ?
2. What factors should the teacher consider as he plans his instruction ? What are the best means of determining what the factors are ?
3. Assume that the pupils have suggested several areas of interest for future work, how can the teacher best judge these suggestions and guide the discussion so that the pupils will select the one which would be of greatest value ?
4. Select a problem in your teaching field and summarize the steps by which you would prepare your instructional plan on a short-term basis.
5. How would you incorporate reasoning and problem solving as objectives in the area that you will teach ?
6. Prepare an over-all plan for an entire semester for one of the groups which you are to teach, giving the lists of materials which you would utilize.
7. Examine the courses of study, curriculum guides, or resource units developed in various schools to secure information regarding the different types of plans which may be developed.
8. List general objectives which you would seek in your teaching regardless of the subject involved.

2. Bossing, Nelson L., *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942, p. 262.

Selecting And Using Materials Of Instruction

THE concept that a sound educational program should be concerned with the problems, needs, and interests of those for whom the program is conducted is directly related to the problems of selecting and utilizing materials of instruction in the most effective way possible. Every pupil should be assisted in achieving all of which he is capable; each boy or girl should have materials which will bring forth the best in each individual. It should not be imagined, however, that materials of instruction appear automatically. In reality, the teacher has many responsibilities in selecting, producing, and using materials of instruction wisely and effectively. If student teaching is to help with the problem, experiences should be provided which will assist prospective teachers to understand the importance of securing the best materials of instruction which are available. The student who learns to promote learning successfully through meeting individual differences profits by opportunities to become acquainted with numerous types of materials which embrace many media and which are pitched at varying levels of difficulty.

39. Student Teaching Provides Opportunities for Prospective Teachers to Become Acquainted with Materials of Instruction.

Good teachers seize upon available opportunities to familiarize themselves with the latest and best instructional aids. Through bibliographies which have been developed, or may be

constructed in connection with various areas of the curriculum, student teachers may become acquainted with the materials in their fields. It is not enough for the student to know only the major books in his own field of endeavor; he must also know something of the publications and materials in related fields. One way of developing such an acquaintanceship is through work in school and college libraries. Some teachers keep a card file of books and other materials related to a field. Whenever one finds a book or an article which has some bearing on his areas of work, he makes a note of the pertinent data about the material and the author. Usually a brief summary is to be found among his notes. Through this plan one builds a file which is a source of help not only to one but to one's pupils as well. Such a method is possible for every teacher. If each beginning teacher would start a file such as this, there is little question but that teaching and learning would be greatly improved.

The plan described above makes it more nearly possible for the teacher to locate materials of instruction to suit the reading level of the individuals concerned. Supplementary materials also are needed on all grade levels in order to care for the problems of the slower learning pupils and also to provide additional challenges to the gifted children, who are often forgotten or neglected. Files and bibliographies are extremely helpful in meeting the needs of slow and rapid learners. In addition, files of community resources, including both material and human resources, are found to be increasingly valuable by teachers who are striving to relate their teaching to the needs of the communities in which their schools are located.

40. Audio-Visual Materials Have Wide Utilization in Many Teaching Situations.

The primary reason for using audio-visual materials in teaching is to improve the communication of ideas. To improve communication is to make learning more effective. Teaching and learning would be immeasurably improved if each teacher would take only a moment or two each day to determine whether or not he was really communicating effectively with his students.

Communication is usually improved when concrete or specific objects are involved; however, communication often breaks down when the words or symbols are not on the level of concrete or specific experiences. At this point, audio-visual aids become a real tool of learning. Critics of audio-visual materials have charged that the proponents of the aids have tried to do away with reading; however, if one recognizes that audio-visual materials merely complement or supplement the written or spoken word of the teacher, then it will be clear that such charges are groundless.

Sound ideas for the use of audio-visual materials would rule out the indiscriminate showing of films or the unplanned viewing of television or listening to the radio. Only when audio-visual materials are related to the material under consideration and only when the materials can add something to the learning experience should they be used. Learning theories stress the importance of need-centered learning activities which will assist the learner to deal most effectively with his problem. Materials of the audio-visual nature should never, therefore, be the determinant of the learning activity. One definite implication of the principle just stated is that block bookings of films, auditorium presentations as a substitute for classroom films, and other such practices which make it extremely difficult to co-ordinate audio-visual materials with classroom situations are open to serious question and are of doubtful value as real learning devices.

The selection of audio-visual materials is an important responsibility of the teacher. One of the major points to be remembered by the student teacher is that every film, recording, or other prepared audio-visual material should be previewed before it is presented to the class. Only through such procedure can the teacher relate the materials to the lessons under consideration and be certain that the materials are appropriate in every respect for the class.

Too often it appears that the teacher feels that films are the only audio-visual materials which are available for use. In reality, there are hundreds of different materials and media. The effective teacher considers all possible devices and then selects the one which seems most useful and effective. For example, a geometry teacher in explaining a point regarding the volume of a circular object may find that the blackboard with its flat surface is not satisfactory for making his point clear. One resourceful teacher merely reached down and lifted the wastebasket to his desk and used this object for his explanation. This common object proved to be just as useful and effective in this teaching situation as any visual aid could possibly have been.

Whatever the media employed, whether it be films, recordings, radio, television, mock-ups, drawings, or something else, the excellent student teacher relates it carefully to the regular teaching presentation. A preview, the preparation of the class for the audio-visual material, the actual presentation, and then the follow-up—all are essential steps if the most is to be gained from audio-visual teaching techniques. A question or two may be sufficient in the follow-up period, but usually the material presented deserves considerable discussion and perhaps even further assignments.

Certain competencies, skills, and understandings are necessary if teachers are to utilize audio-visual materials most effectively. The most significant of these are :

1. An understanding of the psychology of learning and its relationship to audio-visual materials.
 2. An understanding of the fact that audio-visual materials and techniques are applicable in all areas of the curriculum and at all levels.
 3. A recognition that audio-visual materials cannot replace the teacher but will only aid in making communications more effective.
 4. A knowledge of the types of audio-visual materials available in the teacher's particular area of interest.
 5. A knowledge of the sources of free and inexpensive materials.
 6. Skill in the operation and care of the most common pieces of audio-visual equipment.
 7. Skill in the use of the materials themselves.
- 41. Textbook Selection Is a Responsibility in Which Teachers Should Participate.**

The selection of materials of instruction can be simply a process of applying some rating scale devised by a commercial concern, or it can be an experience in which basic curriculum assumptions are analyzed. What is more, an examination of the purposes for which the materials are being selected and the validity of these purposes is a valuable part of the experience of selecting materials. It is, therefore, essential that the teachers make a thorough study of the program of the school before actually moving on to the activities of selecting materials. Certainly, the methods of instruction emphasized in the particular school become important considerations. While rating scales or score cards may occasionally be used to good advantage, the most successful selection committees are ones which devise their own criteria in terms of their particular needs and problems.

In order that the teacher may not have to refer to the textbook as "that one with the green back" or "the book with the purple map on the front," certain pertinent information is recorded for every book examined. Such data include :

1. The name of the author or authors.
2. The exact title.
3. The name and address of the publisher.
4. The date of publication.
5. The cost of the book.
6. The content of the book.

With this information at hand the teacher then looks carefully at the book with the following questions in mind :

1. Does the author's preparation and his point of view indicate that the book would be compatible with the philosophy of the teacher and the school?
2. Are the format and the typography suitable and attractive?
 - a. Is the cover artistic and yet durable?
 - b. Is the printing clear and of suitable size for the grade level involved?
 - c. Are pictures, diagrams, and tables accurate and effective?
3. Does the book contain sufficient material on the subject or subjects to be taught to make it a valuable and useful book?

4. From the table of contents does it appear that the book covers the areas desired?
5. Are the contents organized in such a way as to facilitate teaching?
6. Are sufficient explanations given to aid in understanding and is the style interesting and understandable?
7. Is the vocabulary suitable for the levels to be served?
8. Are provisions made to care for individual differences, needs, and abilities of the pupils?
9. Is provision made for reviews or summaries?
10. Does the book point toward the objectives which the committee has established?

The answers to the questions will supply helpful information regarding the value of the book to the school or the system involved in the selection. Through the type of co-operative action indicated in selecting materials of instruction, the teachers render a real service to the school, the pupils, and the community. While it is unlikely that a teacher will ever find a textbook which seems to do all of the things he desires, it is important to select the best available textbook for the specific needs of the subject to be covered, for the particular needs of the pupils to be taught, and for the community in which they live.

42. Community Resources Are Effective Materials of Instruction.¹

The program of a good school is designed to give its pupils the elemental understandings, skills, attitudes, and habits by which more complex attainments may be gained. Of these understandings, knowledge of the natural and societal environment of a community has considerable importance. Each day the pupil is in contact with his environment; each day, learning arises from the interaction of his personality with the environment; and each day, he becomes more secure through his understanding of and control over the environment, or he becomes less secure and less direct in his approaches to problems which the environment presents.

It is emphasized that field trips, visiting speakers, and other resources cannot replace the teacher, but they can very definitely supplement the teaching devices employed and give real meaning to areas of great value and importance. It is quite important that the teacher catalogue and study available resources just as he would books or journals. Only through a systematic and scientific approach can the best use be made of community resources.

1. Materials contained in Principle 42 have been extracted, with permission, from the following bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky: 'Maurice F. Seay and William J. McGlothlin, *Elementary Education in Two Communities of the Tennessee Valley*, Vol. XIV, No. 3 (March, 1942), pp. 69, 70.

43. Materials of Instruction Should Be Selected in Terms of the Levels of Pupil Ability and Interest.

As has been indicated, one of the greatest challenges to teachers is that of meeting the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils they teach. If the challenge is to be met fully, each teacher becomes a teacher of the language arts and particularly of reading, regardless of the level or subject for which he may be responsible. Teachers have the responsibility for recognizing the individual differences in their pupils and for providing materials of instruction which will enable each boy or girl to profit most by his or her school experiences. Such a task involves a constant perusal of materials so that items which will be of interest and will be at the proper reading level can be made available. Good teachers collect materials and are on familiar terms with the contents of the school library. The obligation for discovering materials to meet individual needs extends to the point that successful teachers often develop original materials to satisfy the demands of the various situations which may arise.

Written instructional materials may be classified under three general headings. Most prevalent by far is the type published or manufactured commercially for use throughout the nation; such materials treat necessarily of very general topics in terms applicable to as many and as varied areas as possible. A second type of materials, issued usually by non-profit agencies, is prepared for a group of communities having common problems and similar resources; such materials can give particular and detailed consideration to matters of concern and interest to the communities. A third type of materials is prepared by teachers and pupils themselves for immediate use in their schools; these materials can, of course, be made to apply to the most intimate problems of a school and its environment. The very activity involved in the planning and manufacture of such materials is a teaching instrument.

The pupils in one of the experimental schools had read about soybeans in **We Plan a Garden**. Pursuing the subject, the children used their information to prepare reading charts for the schoolroom. Then they applied their knowledge by planting some vegetable-type soybeans in the school garden, the first ever raised in the community. The growing vegetable was a much more effective material of instruction than the mental images evoked by words or pictures in books. The children took the mature soybeans home for their interested parents to use as seeds in the next year's gardens. Thus, instructional material prepared in the school served as a direct contribution to the resources of the community. This particular example refers to rural community problems; however, materials can as readily be developed (and have been developed) for urban centers. The good teacher is the one who discovers and utilizes such materials.

One other aspect of the selection of materials for the individual levels of ability represented by the pupils is that of actually determining when material is of the proper level. Although numerous excellent and scientific tests, involving word counts and various means of measurement, have been developed, many of the tests are too complicated and too time consuming for the average teacher to use. Such complex types of measurement are more appropriately used by the textbook publishers; however, the work which the publishing companies have done can be put to excellent use by any conscientious and competent teacher, and a simple means of finding a pupil's reading level can be developed.

The teacher needs several books on which scientific tests have been run, books which are below and above the normal reading level expected of the age or grade involved. With the books the teacher can sit with an individual pupil and ask him to read aloud from one of the easier books. If he can read a page or two selected at random from this book, he is asked to read a similar amount from the next higher level reader. The process can be continued until the pupil reaches a reader in which he finds some difficulty in reading. He will probably exhibit the difficulty by stumbling over or missing some words. When a pupil reaches the stage at which he misses as many as four or five words per page, he has reached a level above which he cannot go without experiencing a certain degree of difficulty and even frustration.

Such a procedure assists the teacher in providing materials at the level of reading indicated. The next step, obviously, would be working with the pupil, regardless of whether he is a slow, average, or rapid reader, to improve his ability. Through experiences which can be provided in word study, reading mechanics, and other areas of reading, real progress is possible, and the learning experiences needed by the various pupils can be provided.

The selection, development, and use of all types of materials of instruction calls for both ingenuity and good judgment. Student teachers should always be alert to new possibilities in the development and use of instructional materials. Through the wise use of these aids, the teacher will gain security, and the pupils will have greater and richer opportunities for learning.

PROBLEMS

1. Preview some films in your area of teaching interest and then develop questions and guides for the use of the ones which you feel would be most helpful in your teaching.
2. Develop a set of criteria for the selection of textbooks in your teaching area or level. Apply the criteria to four different texts and rank these books in the order of your choice.

3. Make a list of community resources which could be used in the teaching of your particular subject area or at your level of teaching. Indicate the manner in which you would utilize the resources, that is, through field trips, pictures, speakers, and other means.
4. Select a story or article which would be of interest to your pupils but which is written in too technical or too difficult language for them to understand. Change the vocabulary to the appropriate level and reproduce the material so that the pupils may read it.
5. List all of the audio-visual aids of which you can think, excluding motion pictures, filmstrips, radio, and television.
6. Select an area of interest in your teaching and make plans for the use of the necessary audio-visual aids, community resources, and supplemental instructional materials which will be needed for teaching.

Managing The Classroom

IF every teacher and administrator in the nation could be asked to name quite frankly and honestly the most frequent problem of beginning teachers, it is quite likely that the problem of managing the classroom and maintaining good discipline would be very high on the list. A difficulty in discussing classroom management problems derives from the fact that many different ideas about what constitutes good order in the school are currently operative. But whatever the definition of "order" or "discipline" might be, it must still be admitted that the orderly conduct of work in the classroom is essential to effective learning. The management of the classroom has sometimes been likened to the measure of health present in the educational program—just as a person's temperature is a good indication of his health. Lack of discipline in a school and high temperature in a person are both symbolic of other deep disturbances. In each case, however, it should be emphasized that the disciplinary problems and the high temperature are symptoms, and not the actual causative factors. Competent medical care and effective educational leadership are necessary to treat the causes in either instance.

While it is impossible in this one chapter to deal completely with all of the complex factors involved in behavior problems, the student should already have a good foundation for such a study through his acquaintance with the knowledge of certain characteristics of the behavior of school-age children and youth. It is hoped that the principles considered in the following pages will serve as a nucleus around which the student and supervising

teacher, through further reading and experience, may develop a clear understanding of classroom management.

The principles which follow are based on three assumptions which seem quite significant :

1. There are some factors related to preparation of teaching plans, selection of materials, and use of classroom techniques which tend to prevent or cause classroom disorder.
2. In spite of all precautions, some disorder may sometimes occur, and it is the responsibility of the teacher to restore order than through skillful classroom management.
3. The antisocial behavior of a few, while sometimes unavoidable and also understandable, should not cause other members of the class to be denied their rightful opportunities to learn.

44. Good Citizenship in the Classroom Is Based upon Intelligent Self-control.

Concepts of good classroom management formerly regarded good pupil behavior as a result of pressure applied by the teacher. Pupils were seldom—if ever—permitted to act in a normal or natural manner. More recent ideas concerning discipline and order hold that management and discipline are not externally developed. According to the newer concept, it can be readily seen that good order should be present at all times, rather than just when pressure is applied by the teacher.

A full understanding of this principle necessitates knowledge on the part of the student teacher of the fact that boys and girls must have some means for occasionally "letting off steam." It would follow, therefore, that the teacher would, on most occasions, create the opportunity for the pupils to react in the manner normal to their particular grade or age levels.

A teacher must have faith in the desire and the ability of pupils to do those things which are proper. Let the pupils know that you have confidence in them, and if by chance they should fail to live up to the faith which you have indicated, examine with the children the behavior which would be acceptable in the situation. The teacher who constantly looks for trouble and problems will usually find them.

Some modern proponents of "permissiveness" in the classroom, in an effort to break away from the authoritarian type of control, have moved to the opposite extreme and have advocated that students be granted practically full freedom at all times. Many times, under such circumstances, order completely breaks down, largely because the pupils have not developed the necessary feelings and attitudes of responsibility to accompany such freedom. Therefore, somewhere between the extremes of the autocratic and the permissive classroom is a "happy medium," which can probably best be called the "controlled-freedom" classroom.

In such a situation boys and girls must be assisted in developing the concept that freedom is a thing which is earned, and

is not necessarily an inalienable right. If such an attitude is developed, certain controls may be relaxed as students progressively demonstrate their ability to discharge responsibilities without loss of order.

Whenever pupils do not completely follow the best citizenship patterns, opportunities should be provided to help them evaluate the points at which they have failed. The chance to evaluate situations in which they have succeeded should also be provided, for the pupils will learn more effective means of self-control through both types of experiences.

When boys and girls learn that any poor conduct is harmful to the best interests of the group, the group is on its way to the successful solution of the problems of classroom management. The achievement of self-control is an evolutionary process, and one on which the teacher and pupils must work together.

Undoubtedly the most opportune times to develop better attitudes toward self-control come while pupils are in rather "natural" situations. Working with pupils in group situations presents opportunities to develop sound patterns of behavior. If such an approach is employed, ample opportunity should also be given to evaluate behavior in terms of the principles established by the group. Through such evaluative experiences, group attitudes are developed, and these attitudes can become the most effective deterrents to misconduct by the individual or the group. With proper guidance the pupils themselves will be the first to call attention to any deviation from the patterns which they have established.

In a study by Lucien B. Kinney, for the California Council on Teacher Education, the competent teacher is described as one who, in addition to other things, is able to :

Maintain an effective balance of freedom and security in classroom.

- a. Demonstrate ability to plan co-operatively with pupils.
- b. Develop pupil leadership and responsibility increasingly.
- c. Provide democratic classroom organization and procedure.
 - (1) Large and small group activities.
 - (2) Opportunities for leadership and co-operation.
- d. Provide opportunity for independent, critical thinking—emphasis on freedom of expression, open-mindedness.
- e. Provide for wide participation, at various levels of ability.
- f. Provide opportunity to develop attitudes deemed socially, psychologically, biologically desirable.¹

One additional competence seems necessary if the teacher is not to become discouraged in matters of classroom management. It is important to remember that there will be individual differences in self-control abilities, just as there will be differ-

1. Kinney, Lucien B., *Measure of a Good Teacher* (Monograph), California Teachers Association, 1952, p. 18.

ences in the ability to learn at a certain level or rate of speed. The pupil who tries hard, but whose conduct is not completely up to the standards set by the teacher and the pupils, may benefit far more from understanding than from punishment.

45. Good Physical Facilities within the Classroom Contribute to Effective Learning.

Factors such as lighting, ventilation, and room arrangement can play a large part in the development of good classroom situations. Experimentation has recently been conducted in an effort to determine whether or not such factors as those mentioned above materially affect the climate of learning. It has been discovered that not only do pupils learn better under good physical conditions in the room but also conduct themselves in a manner which makes better learning possible. A room which is dark or stuffy is not conducive to good learning or good behavior. The room which is dull and unattractive, without any color or decoration, is more like a prison cell than a room in which learning is to take place.

46. Effective Organization of Classroom Routine Reduces Effort and Confusion to a Minimum.

Every vocation and profession has certain techniques or tricks-of-the-trade, and teaching is certainly no exception. The creative and realistic teacher (these descriptive terms are not contradictory) is one who introduces certain measures which are of a preventive nature in an effort to forestall problems of classroom management.

The basic aim of teaching is to produce learning. But there is much to be done in order to assure that there shall be created in the classroom the conditions which will make teaching possible. One cannot simply come into a new class armed with a teaching plan and start to teach. No real teaching can be accomplished unless there is created in the classroom an atmosphere of rapport between teacher and pupils. When this is done, the rest is relatively easy.

The operation of a classroom is a complex process. The indispensable rapport for actual teaching requires the establishment of a smooth functioning machinery for class routine, and conversely, the proper and skillful establishment of such machinery is one of the most important elements in the creation of rapport. Failure to understand and apply this principle is usually at the root of a great many, perhaps most, of the new teacher's problems. It is easy to place so much stress on organization and management problems that these become the end of teaching. That is, it is possible to have a mechanically smooth-running classroom with little substance. For the new teacher, the immediate problem is to establish the management machinery as a condition for the creative job of teaching.

Many of the routine tasks necessary in the establishment of the classroom machinery may be performed by the pupils as valuable learning experiences. For example, such jobs as distributing materials, collecting money for various drives, and recording pupil absences may be delegated to pupils. Not only does the teacher gain time for other responsibilities, but the pupil also receives great values from the opportunity to participate in these activities. Just imagine all the energy for more creative tasks that the teacher would be robbed of if he had to handle all these matters himself! Have as many of these jobs as possible (all, in upper grades) handled by monitors. Try to have a job for every pupil. Each job may be assigned to two pupils who share the work to assure that the job is done in the event of the absence of one. When both pupils are present, one can take the job in the morning and one in the afternoon, or they can take it on alternate days; but the responsibility must be undertaken seriously. This gives every pupil a share in the functioning of the class—a feeling that the class is his. The development of this social feeling is, after all, one of the ultimate objectives of all teaching.

Good record-keeping is an essential for every class. A class-seating chart instead of an alphabetized roll can become in the hands of an effective teacher a valuable technique for preventive discipline. The teacher who does not know the names of the pupils from the first day of school is asking for difficulties. Of course, it is impossible for a teacher to learn all names immediately; but a seating chart makes it possible to connect a pupil with a certain seat and thereby minimizes various disciplinary problems. A seating chart is an easy item to make; however, it is amazing to notice how many teachers either through ignorance or laziness cause themselves untold grief by their failure to utilize the device. There can certainly be no excuse for the practice of a teacher who was recently observed during the seventh week of a school term still pointing to pupils in the room and designating them by "You—in the blue sweater—go to the board," or "Will the boy on the last seat of the first row get out his books." Needless to say, the order in the classroom was poor, because many of the pupils were aware that the teacher did not even know their names. The matter of loss of pride enters into such a situation too, for nothing is more disheartening to a youngster than to feel that the teacher does not care enough about him to learn his name.

Even such matters as the returning of test papers or the making of daily assignments can be done in such a way as to minimize confusion. The careful and thoughtful teacher will arrange the papers for efficient distribution, so that it is not necessary to return them at random with all of the confusion which usually accompanies such procedure.

Promptness on the part of the teacher also reduces confusion. The teacher who stays out in the hall to visit with another teacher when the classroom period has already started quite often finds it difficult to get the class underway when he does come into the room, and thereby wastes a considerable amount of time and effort on the part of both himself and the pupils.

Effective organization also would indicate that work of some type should start on the first day of the session in order that poor habits may not be established by the pupils during the beginning days. In preparing the first assignments, special care should be exercised to be sure that they are not so difficult as to discourage pupils, and not so easy as to promote habits of sloppiness or loafing.

47. Postponing Action on a Classroom Problem Is Effective When Further Analysis Is Needed.

Occasionally almost every teacher is confronted with a disciplinary problem which seems unsolvable at that particular moment. Certain cases which arise out of conditions of maladjustment demand further analysis and sometimes even clinical treatment. In such circumstances some action taken on the spur of the moment may have quite negative effects. The difficulty obviously arises in trying to be discriminating regarding the action to be taken. Certainly, small annoyances which persist, and apparently might grow to such proportions that the entire class would be disturbed, should be stopped. However, if the disturbance is a very minor one, and is not annoying to other members of the class, sometimes it is better to ignore it or wait until some opportunity presents itself to discuss it with the individual in a very quiet and unobtrusive manner.

On the other hand, when a teacher is faced with a problem of major proportions, whether it be one which affects only one person or an entire class, it is often advisable to consult with other teachers or the administrator, so that the problem may be worked out in such a way that the greatest benefit will result. Many times it is wise to confer with the parents before any remedial action is taken. In serious cases the teacher should not hesitate to ask others for advice and counsel; however, it would certainly be unwise to run to others for help on every problem. Such action usually encourages the offenders to go even farther with their annoying or disturbing tactics.

48. Esprit de Corps Is the Basis for Good Discipline.

Just as a good athletic team depends upon team play for success, so does a class group depend upon team spirit and group loyalty for good discipline. The teacher, as well as the pupils, must be a real part of the group and all must work together with a feeling of pride in their accomplishments. The fact that

there may be a wide range of ability in the group should not interfere with the development of such a spirit, for the progress and accomplishments of all are equally real, even though some may not move as far or as fast as others.

Such a principle as this one indicates quite clearly that sarcasm or irony would not promote *esprit de corps*. The teacher who depends upon sarcasm to control the class may have good order; but the learning opportunities are definitely limited by such actions, and the development of the controlled-freedom concept of discipline is limited to a large degree. Time after time in studies of teacher characteristics, sarcasm has been set forth by pupils as one of the things they most disliked in teachers. Presenting such a matter from a positive point of view, the same studies reveal that students feel that a sense of humor is a most essential characteristic of successful and effective teachers. Nothing could be more necessary to the development of a feeling of loyalty and belonging than a good sense of humor on the part of both teachers and pupils.

Esprit de corps stems from co-operative action on problems of concern to the pupils. Not long ago a boy in a fourth grade class (and it could just as easily have been a twelfth grade class) began to create some real problems because of his rather antisocial behavior. He pushed other persons' books off their desks; he talked aloud while others were talking; and he generally became a problem child to the teacher and the group. When the teacher talked with the supervisor concerning the persistent problem, the supervisor helped the teacher make a rather objective analysis of the situation. Some study revealed that the teacher had remarked aloud one day that Jimmy, the fourth-grader in question, was the slowest in the class to grasp the arithmetic process being studied. Further investigation revealed that the other boys and girls "razzed" Jimmy on the way to school in the mornings and on the way home in the afternoon. They called him "dumbbell" and "lame brain." It did not take long for him to feel that he was not a part of "the team," and he took steps to show just how he felt about the matter.

Although it was usually not possible to transfer a pupil to another room in mid-semester, the supervisor and the teacher felt that the situation had gone so far that such action was justified, so Jimmy was transferred to another fourth grade class in the same school. However, before the transfer was effected, Jimmy, his parents, and the new teacher were all conferred with separately. The new teacher, who understood the situation, talked briefly with her pupils before Jimmy arrived, stressing to them the necessity for making all new persons in their class feel at home. She also explained that, because the classes had moved at slightly differing rates of speed in different sub-

jects, there might be some things in which the new boy would be ahead of them and others in which he might be slightly behind. With this orientation, with some personal attention to Jimmy on the part of the new teacher, and with the co-operation of the parents, Jimmy became a "new citizen" and a good one.

Obviously, several factors were involved in the change of behavior. The understanding of all persons involved was a big factor, and the skill of the new teacher in handling the situation both before and after Jimmy arrived was significant. However, the fact that Jimmy was a part of the new group, was not an outcast, and was given a feeling of belonging, contributed more than anything else to the changed behavior.

When pupils develop group attitudes which in turn promote pride in their group activities, many of the major problems of classroom management have begun to be permanently solved.

49. Good Discipline Is More Than Good Order.

Good discipline does not mean just being quiet and sitting still, for good discipline includes full participation in the various activities of the classroom. The classroom which requires only that the pupil not disturb anyone else is breeding pupils who quite often do only that which is required and no more.

If a pupil feels that his work in school is helping him to become the kind of person he wants to become, he will then have an avenue through which he can achieve. On the other hand, if he does not receive any satisfaction from his work and cannot see how it will benefit him, then the experiences can be real barriers and can produce disciplinary problems.

Good discipline in the classroom means the controlling of the impulses and acts of the individual members of the class to the extent necessary for the creation and maintenance of an effective learning situation. The activities of teacher and pupils are harmoniously directed toward the attainment of a common goal—maximal growth on the part of each individual child in those desirable directions which come within the range of the school's responsibilities. Good discipline implies self-discipline on the part of the individual, based upon a decent respect for the rights of others; it implies group discipline where the individuals restrain their differing impulses and desires and allow their acts to be governed by the principles of concerted action. Discipline implies respect for constituted authority by the individual, and respect for the rights of the individual by authority; it also implies some means of control. Whenever possible, inner control, or self-control, by the individual should be allowed to govern his conduct, but when necessary external control or compulsion must be applied, it should be applied humanely and in such a manner as to be consistent with the dignity of a human being. Discipline implies the establishing of desirable behavior

patterns, with decreasing external control and increasing inner control on the part of the individual; it implies the **recognition** of a common purpose by teacher and pupils and assumes it to be imperative that the classroom situation be prevented from deteriorating into one with teacher and pupils arranged against each other; it implies that, because the purpose of the classroom is the growth of each individual child, classroom order and routine should promote the development of the child as an individual; finally, it implies very definitely that none of the following has a place in the classroom: dictatorship by the teacher, anarchy, mob rule by the pupils, abusive treatment of children, license on the part of the children.

The classroom should be a pleasant place, where teacher and children work together. The children should be subjected to no more restrictions than are necessary for the protection of the rights of others, and the accomplishment of the purpose of the class. The extent to which orderliness and quiet in the classroom prevail is entirely relative, depending upon the age of the children and the nature of the work. However, it should be pointed out to the student teacher, that different schools have different standards and that the established administrative policies should not be disregarded.

50. Discipline Improves As Teaching Improves.

The keystone of successful teaching is the personality of the teacher. And in no phase of teaching is the influence of the teacher's personality more evident than in maintaining order in the classroom, for the classroom is a common meeting ground for many different personalities—some aggressive, some withdrawing, all immature, all with conflicting interests and desires. Yet the good teacher creates a unified, orderly classroom out of these diverse elements. And this is accomplished largely through the influence of the teacher's personality. That personality must be forceful, vital with enthusiasm and confidence. It must be based on a warm and human understanding which invites confidence and friendship. It must possess the power to secure co-operation and command respect. It should be tactful, sympathetic, and tolerant. And it should be characterized by firmness, fairness, consistency, and interest in the welfare of the children.

The student teacher should be encouraged to make a study of the desirable teaching personality and to evaluate his own. While not possessing all desirable personality traits, most student teachers will bring with them a sufficiently good personality to justify efforts at development. The supervising teacher should exercise good judgment in the selection of traits of personality for intensive development. That is, emphasis should be placed upon those desirable traits in which the student teacher shows promise. Undesirable personality traits possessed by the student

teacher should be pointed out to him, and the extrinsic ones eliminated. But the supervising teacher should refrain from "nagging" the student teacher about firmly fixed characteristics which the latter cannot adequately bring under control in the brief period of student teaching.

Self-confidence is a personality trait of the teacher which is of such importance as to deserve special attention. It is a trait which can be developed greatly during student teaching, or it can be destroyed by improper handling. An attitude of confidence arises from a sense of security. Some factors contributing to the security of the student teacher are familiarity with the classroom scene and the details of routine, explicit knowledge of what is expected of him and an understanding of his position in the classroom, knowledge of the friendly interest and backing of the supervising teacher, knowledge of all the pupils' names at sight, knowledge that the pupils like him, knowledge of his own thorough preparation, and the possession of an adequate plan for conducting the class.

Good personal relations between teacher and pupils are essential to a good learning environment. Good relations are based on mutual respect and understanding. They are primarily a result of the teacher's personality. The teacher must demonstrate that he is able, courteous, even-tempered, friendly, understanding with children, firm, fair, possessed of a desire to help, and worthy of respect. The supervising teacher can help the student teacher establish good relations with the children by demonstrating his own confidence in the student teacher and by availing himself of every opportunity to exhibit respect and friendliness. He should help the student teacher to become acquainted with the children and make opportunities for him to work with them during the period of orientation.

Good planning and thorough preparation contribute greatly to good classroom management. Some points which should constantly be kept in mind are :

1. The classroom: clean and attractive in appearance, sufficient space, good seating arrangement, good lighting and ventilation.
2. The activity: well organized with adequate plans and proper techniques, sufficient work, interesting materials on the interest and ability level of the pupils, flexibility in planning as needs arise, and attention to individual differences.
3. Materials and aids: procured in advance, easily accessible, arranged in an efficient manner.
4. Efficient management in the classroom is directly related to the excellence of the teaching techniques employed. Poor techniques can nullify the best of plans.
5. The Golden Rule for establishing good classroom management is: keep the pupils engaged in worthwhile tasks that allow for individual differences.
6. The teacher should always be ready and prepared for the next steps to be taken.

7. The teacher should be on the alert for the unexpected and able to make necessary adaptations or adjustments to a changing situation.
8. When addressing the class as a group, the teacher should secure attention before beginning to talk. Failure to do this is common among beginning student teachers. The teacher should talk to the pupils, look them in the eye, and face the class as much of the time as possible.

There are certain **intangibles** of technique which are closely related to the teacher's personality and which make methods more effective. For example, the teacher should have the ability to convey an attitude which, by voice inflection or gesture, assures the pupil of the teacher's faith in his ability to succeed. There should be that indefinable quality in the teacher's voice that lets the boy or girl know that the teacher is on "his side" and hopes that he or she will be able to answer correctly. There are many intangible qualities which sharpen the teacher's acts and make them effective. They may be native attributes to some student teachers; others will need the aid of the supervising teacher in mastering them. The importance of the intangible qualities that makes techniques effective should not be overlooked.

51. Punishment Is Used Discriminatingly.

Today's good teacher knows that any punishment used must be used only as it is based on and in relation to what is known about how children and youth grow and develop. The teacher today should understand quite clearly the rules and regulations of any school relative to types of punishment which may be used, but even with this understanding, the teacher needs more. It is necessary to know when to use punishment and to use it only when absolutely necessary.

It is desirable that the teacher keep in mind that children generally receive little physical punishment either at home or at school. It should further be remembered that children no longer live in a "to-be-seen-but-not-heard" atmosphere at home. These factors make teaching more difficult in some respects, and yet the long-range results of teaching are far more effective than they used to be.

Occasionally some form of punishment is necessary; however, the teacher must always be certain that the punishment is not meted out in anger, and that it has a reasonably good chance of effecting a desirable change in the behavior of the pupil. Practically all schools either forbid or frown upon physical punishment of any kind. These regulations or policies are certainly for the best interests of all concerned, for many instances can be cited in which physical punishment made a pupil all the more determined to create even more problems. The major reason, however, that this type of punishment is usually ineffectual is that one is really not treating the **cause of the behavior**

problems. Again it would be similar to giving aspirin to lower the temperature, but not treating the real cause of such temperature.

Some teachers ask pupils to remain after school as punishment, and a few still require the pupil to write words or sentences a large number of times. If any real value were derived from these forms of punishment, perhaps they could be viewed with more tolerance and interest. While some forms of punishment may occasionally seem desirable or necessary, the teacher should be urged to use every other means possible of solving the problem before resorting to punishment of any kind.

For the pupil who is repeatedly unco-operative, the withdrawal of some special privileges might be considered. The loss of privilege should closely follow the act of disobedience, and the teacher should always be sure that the pupil fully understands the circumstances which made it necessary to withdraw a privilege. The need for and the justice of punishment can be discussed with the class on occasion. The type of privilege withdrawn should depend upon the seriousness and the frequency of the infraction of rules, and where possible, the punishment should be in some way related to the infraction.

If the pupils understand clearly what is expected of them, they will generally "come through." If the teacher will always give recognition to individual and class for their efforts to do the proper things, punishment will seldom be necessary. It is frequently wiser to praise those who co-operate than to punish those who are unco-operative. The major objective in classroom management should be the development of responsibility by the class for its own discipline and management.

PROBLEMS

1. Select three of your classmates for a role-playing situation in which you also have a part. Develop a problem situation in which a pupil has been insolent. Let one of your classmates be the principal, another a parent of the pupil, another the pupil, and you play the role of the teacher. Determine the action which should be followed in the situation which you develop.
2. Develop a list of factors which you feel are most important in helping to avert disciplinary problems. Use the list in evaluating yourself and the situations confronting you.

Directing Pupil Activities

IN almost every school there are activities outside of regular classroom instruction which have been called extracurricular activities. Commonly classed as extracurricular are such aspects of the educational program as clubs, homeroom organizations, athletics, assemblies, student government associations, student publications, dramatics, and musical organizations. Historically, the evolution of the terminology used to describe the "extracurricular" program reflects the difference of opinion which has existed over the place and meaning of the activities. While **extracurricular** is one term very frequently encountered, the terms **extraclass**, **cocurricular**, **social activities**, **intercurricular**, **semicurricular**, and **collateral** have been used when referring to the activities indicated.

Perhaps the difficulty in defining the term arises from the way in which the curriculum is viewed. If the curriculum is considered to include only those activities carried on in the classroom as a regular part of the formalized instructional program, then the activities indicated would properly be classed as "extracurricular" or "extraclass." On the other hand, if the curriculum is viewed as including all the activities and experiences provided and directed by the school to achieve its objectives, then the terms **curricular** and **intercurricular** are more appropriately applied. The use of the term **pupil activities** in this volume is meant to reflect something of the evolutionary change in the thinking of many educators concerning the kinds of activities indicated—to consider them within the framework of the curriculum itself.

The excellent student of teaching understands the nature of pupil activities, the contributions they make to the realization of the objectives of the school, and the relationship they bear to other aspects of the school program. He is prepared to work in the pupil-activity program through sponsoring activities and, directing the experiences of the pupils who participate.

52. Pupil Activities Are Effective Means of Helping Meet Children's Needs.

Pupil activities make large contributions to the fulfilling of the social, civic, and moral needs of children by providing valuable types of experiences. The activities are based on the theory of "learning by doing" rather than by "studying about doing." Through the activities program, pupils are afforded opportunities to experience the functions of citizenship here and now, to learn democracy by living it, to assume responsibility for behavior, to demonstrate initiative, and to carry to successful conclusion the tasks which are undertaken.

A teacher may utilize the election of class officers as a means of realizing objectives related to the development of citizenship. Each section of the grade and every pupil in it should have a part in the election. Teachers should serve as guides and directors, while pupils initiate and carry forward the various activities related to the choosing of their class leaders. The whole process from the declaration of a candidate to the final election should be controlled and determined by definite procedures stated in the class bylaws.

There is little doubt but that activities of the type described have definite **curricular** functions in the meeting of pupils' needs. Many times the objectives established for the various pupil activities are exemplary of highly functional types of educational outcomes. For example, one school included in the purposes of the Foreign Language Club the practical use of the language learned in the classroom, the promotion of an increased interest in the language and life of the people, and the improvement of facility in speaking the language. Probably, it would be difficult to find more worthwhile objectives for a "curricular" activity in foreign language.

In most of the schools of today the activities program makes significant educational contributions by permitting pupils to do the worthwhile things they want to do and are likely to do anyway, but for which not enough provision is made in the regular classwork.

53. Every Pupil Should Have an Opportunity to Participate.

Of all the people in the school, it is the boys and girls themselves who profit most from participation in the program of pupil activities. It is in this phase of the school program that

pupils have additional opportunities to follow their own interests and to participate in activities they consider worthwhile. Ultimately, the goal of the program of pupil activities is to make it possible for every child to become a voluntarily active participant. This is not to say that the activities program is to be used to compensate for the neglect of pupils' needs in other areas of the school program. Moreover, the activity program is not to be looked upon merely as a way of making sure that the child has an opportunity to do something which he feels is worthwhile. Rather, the student teacher should view the activities as important aspects of the total school program because of the intrinsic values they have for pupils.

The continuous growth of children, particularly in the accelerated stages of adolescence, makes it necessary for them constantly to acquire new controls of adjustment. Moreover, problems of adjustment are often intensified by maladjustments which may have occurred in earlier years. A sound program of pupil activities provides numerous excellent opportunities for children to develop the ability to make adjustments. Intelligent observation and recognition of pupils' problems of adjustment may reveal to the student of teaching possible opportunities for the development of different activities or the suggestion of significant changes in a present program.

Recognition of the needs of children for practice in social co-operation leads to the provision of more opportunity for participation by pupils. The natural social interests and urges of boys and girls are bases upon which wholesome attitudes and worthy ideals can be developed. As pupils participate fully in group activities which are interesting and important to them, they submit themselves to the forces of social approval or disapproval and to the opinion of the group, which may have lasting and constructive effects upon their lives.

Much has been said concerning the work of the school in helping boys and girls to develop the ability to use leisure time in worthwhile ways. Citing the improper use of leisure is a totally inadequate means of realizing the objective of worthy use, unless a positive program of action is offered. The activity program offers such a plan of action because, through participating in it, pupils engage in activities which fill leisure moments in pleasant and wholesome ways.

In Principle 30 in Chapter V, it was pointed out that two of the basic needs of boys and girls are the need for security and the need for belonging. It was said that some important avenues for the meeting of these needs are learning the security brought about through peer groups and other group relations, learning the security which comes through sharing, learning to find a place in various types of groups, and learning to help others to meet needs for belonging. Through participation in the activities program, pupils develop feelings of belonging to

the school. Loyalties and interests become expanded until the pupils identify themselves with the work and purposes of the school as a matter of conviction, not of compulsion. Pupils with different beliefs and backgrounds are often brought together on a common basis in the same activity, with the result that the activities themselves become powerful forces of democratization, as well as important means of providing for individual needs and differences.

In light of the foregoing discussion, it must be stated that as a matter of policy the activities of the school should be open to all pupils on the same basis of membership. If the conditions of membership in an activity are known to all and are the same for any interested pupil, and then he is unable to attain admittance, it is possible that some valuable experience may result. For example, the inability of an indolent pupil to attain membership in an honor society or club may teach him a valuable lesson. However, a sound program provides a variety of activities to give opportunity for participation to those pupils who cannot attain the high standards of scholastic achievement usually required for membership in honor groups.

Some teachers and administrators, who recognize the popularity of pupil activities and the energy and time pupils spend on them, are concerned lest participation in the activities have a deleterious effect upon scholarship. In their preoccupation with subjects rather than pupils, the persons indicated insist upon requiring a pupil to maintain a "passing grade" or a "C average" in academic subjects before he is permitted to participate in school activities. The theory is that such requirement tends to focus the pupil's attention on his academic work and improve the quality of it because of the motivation of finally being able to do what he really wants to do and what seems to him worthwhile. Practice has failed in many ways to bear out the theory, because desirable results have not generally developed from the standpoint of pupil interest in academic work. Moreover, to the extent it has succeeded in stimulating greater pupil effort academically, the practice has encouraged the teachers to give insufficient attention to an outmoded curriculum. As a matter of fact, studies indicate generally that participation in the program of pupil activities results in stimulating scholarship and that no harmful effect is discernible.

Participation of pupils in school activities is advocated because learning experiences are initiated and carried through by boys and girls who have interests and needs they wish to satisfy. The attainment of significant educational goals through the activity program of the school is an application of the basic principle of building learning experiences around the interests, needs, and purposes which pupils recognize and which seem worthwhile to them.

54. A Good Activities Program Helps Pupils to Control Participation.

As indicated in Principle 53 of this chapter, it is believed that every pupil should have the opportunity to participate in some school activity, and that all boys and girls should take part in the program to some extent. Probably, one of the most difficult problems connected with pupil participation is to secure activity on the part of pupils who can and should profit by participating, but who are not interested in becoming actively engaged. Perhaps the solution lies in reaching such pupils through the guidance program and in providing a variety of activities to challenge participation. On the other hand, many pupils who are interested, capable, and enthusiastic tend to overparticipate in school activities. Instances have been reported of boys and girls participating in as many as ten or more activities, including interscholastic teams, major publications, school committees, and clubs. In some cases teachers are often to blame for the overparticipation of capable pupils. It is easy for a teacher who shoulders responsibility for the success of an activity to solicit the participation of a pupil who is interested, who is able to perform well, and who exerts initiative. Many times such boys and girls are those who are already expending too much time and energy on pupil activities in relation to their total school experiences.

A sound program of school activities helps pupils to strike a good balance between the two extremes of participating too much and too little. The participation of each pupil should lead toward the realization of several educational goals by being varied and extensive enough to make such growth possible. Ideally, the activities program attracts the interest and stimulates the enthusiasm of every boy and girl. Certainly the ideal is not totally achieved in all schools, and various schemes of encouraging and controlling pupil participation are practiced.

In many schools the arrangement of the schedule of pupil activities naturally limits participation. For example, a period of time may be set aside during the school day or after school during which all club meetings are to be held. In other schools there is an activity period in the regular school day during which all pupil activities except perhaps athletics are held. By staggering a series of activities and meetings throughout the week or month, variety is obtained in the program. Such an arrangement automatically limits the participation of pupils to the number of activities scheduled at different times.

The offering of awards to pupils as incentives or rewards for participation in activities has been defended and condemned. Awards have been defended as stimulants to increased participation and condemned as false motivation. While no unanimity of opinion appears to exist, most schools are striving for a middle ground between the extremes indicated and are hon-

estly searching for a satisfactory solution to this difficult problem. Types of awards vary from inexpensive letters or badges to expensive sweaters, blankets, or watches, and include recognition ceremonies, certificates and membership in special organizations such as honor clubs. There is an apparent trend away from expensive awards and toward simple recognition of outstanding achievement and service.

Another method of controlling minimum and maximum pupil participation in school activities is the guidance or contract plan. Those who oppose the more "mechanical" methods believe that it is not wise to attempt to meet the needs of all pupils by fitting them into the same mold; that it is not advisable to force some pupils to participate in activities, especially certain ones; and that some boys and girls may safely participate in more activities than other pupils. Thus, it is urged that the participation of pupils in activities be a matter of guidance and counseling, rather than of mechanical control.

The operation of the guidance plan is based upon the principle that pupils should be assisted to make wise decisions about participating in activities. To do this, adequate information about the program must be furnished to the pupils. Some of the more common means of informing pupils about the program of activities include home-room and assembly programs, articles in the school paper and student handbook, information published in special activities bulletins, and conferences with teachers and sponsors of organizations.

A second phase of the guidance plan is concerned with the pupil's individual program of schoolwork. The work program and load of each pupil is planned in terms of his particular needs for participation in all types of school activities. In a live program of guidance, the discussion of participation in activities is an integral part of the individual and group guidance programs of the school. In other words, under the guidance method, educational planning is broadened to include experiences in the activity program as well as those academic matters usually included.

It seems apparent that it is becoming more and more desirable for the pupil-activity program to assist pupils in controlling their participation in the various activities. Control is desirable especially from the standpoint of helping pupils maintain a reasonable balance of participation in all types of school activities. In addition, pupils need help in selecting activities in relation to personal needs and in protecting themselves against too heavy a load.

55. The Leadership of the Sponsor Determines the Excellence of an Activity.

The pupil-activity program will have educational value and meet pupils' needs when each activity is well organized and

directed. Intelligent sponsorship is the most fundamental element in the success of an activity. In fact, the success or failure of the whole activity program depends in large measure upon the quality of leadership exerted by the sponsors of the various activities. Sponsors stand in the same relationship to pupil activities as teachers do with respect to teaching-learning situations. The relationship imposes responsibilities for developing a program to meet the needs of the pupils, providing appropriate learning experiences and activities, guiding and directing the learning of the boys and girls, and encouraging and promoting initiative and leadership.

The nature of the sponsorship determines in large measure whether or not a school organization is a pupil activity or merely another formal class. The sponsor of an activity stands in an advisory, rather than a dictatorial, relationship to the boys and girls being supervised. The values of activities are lost to pupils under sponsorship of the dictatorial type. The wise sponsor does not dominate the activity under his supervision. Domination prevents pupils from working co-operatively and independently to realize their own purposes through pursuing common interests. The role of the sponsor is one of co-operative supervisor, helpful counselor, and interested friend to the membership of an organization. The sponsor helps pupils determine what they wish to do, choose the means of accomplishing their purposes, use ideas, techniques, and information he can supply, and evaluate the worth of what they have done. In all of this, it is easy for him to make the mistake of assuming too much of the responsibility for initiation of the events and of performing too many of the actual activities. By accepting pupils as they are and beginning with them where they are in their leadership to each other, to him, and to the activity, the good sponsor is able to influence the attitudes and to condition the behavior of boys and girls favorably without undue coercion or influence. Insofar as possible, the wise sponsor leaves in the hands of the pupils the planning and conducting of the program of an activity.

In the selection of new teachers, administrators are giving increased attention to the ability and willingness of applicants to assume responsibilities in the pupil activity program. Obviously, it is important for students of teaching to consider fitness for sponsorship as a part of professional preparation. All student teachers do not make good sponsors of pupil activities because some are domineering, lax, uninterested, or overly zealous in giving supervision and direction, to the point of devoting too much time and energy to the activity program. Good sponsors have definite characteristics which are regarded by administrators in assigning sponsorship duties. While the following list is not all-inclusive, it is indicative of the attributes of a good sponsor:

1. Vitality in guiding and directing the activities of boys and girls.
2. Enthusiasm and ability to create enthusiasm for others' own interests.
3. Tact in associating with boys and girls to prevent familiarity, but to maintain their confidence and respect.
4. Interest in many things.
5. Ability to get along well with people.
6. Awareness of problems of social living.
7. Desire to associate with boys and girls.
8. Adaptability in being able to change carefully made plans as needs arise.
9. Ability to guide without domineering.
10. Possession of a sense of humor.
11. Possession of ability and/or training in the area of at least one activity.
12. Acceptance of all boys and girls regardless of personal attractiveness or social position.
13. Understanding and appreciation of the needs and problems of pupils.
14. Resourcefulness and interest in exploring new and different fields and problems.
15. Ability to derive satisfaction in pupil accomplishment, rather than from results of one's own efforts.

The alert student of teaching seizes every opportunity to become proficient in the area of pupil activities. He takes advantage of opportunities to acquire practical knowledge through participation in the activity programs of schools, colleges, and community organizations. He observes many activities in operation and perhaps arranges to serve as an assistant sponsor in at least one activity during the period of his professional training. In addition, he learns the characteristics and behavioral patterns of children of the developmental level on which he plans to work. He learns what they are like, how they react in various situations, what they like to do, and what problems commonly occur in their behavior and adjustment. Adequate preparation along the lines indicated results in the type of sponsorship most likely to produce successful activities.

56. Business Affairs Must Be Properly Managed.

In view of the educational values attributed to school activities by most educators, boards of education are justified in providing financial support for the program. Despite the truth of the foregoing statement, the support of the activity program is not usually provided through regular school funds. While it is true that the payment of sponsors and other instructional personnel, the furnishing of some equipment, and the provision of a meeting place are provided by the board of education, the remainder of the program in most schools is financed through funds raised by pupils. Fees, dues, fund-raising activities, ad-

mission charges, subscription, and contributions in the form of advertisements, courtesy notices, and lists of sponsoring business firms comprise the principal means through which funds are raised.

Recent trends in many schools toward charging relatively high admission fees discriminate against boys and girls whose family incomes are in the low brackets. Pupils must not be prevented from participating in activities because of their inability to pay the cost. Indigent pupils are often prevented from participating in activities because they are not financially able, and in some cases they drop out of school rather than face the situation. No school which trains for democratic citizenship and believes in equal educational opportunity will permit such situations to exist. Good pupil-activity programs make provision for indigent pupils to participate when the cost is prohibitive for them. The statement does not mean to imply that poor attitudes and bad habits are created by giving support to such boys and girls. In the first place, most, if not all, indigent pupils are rightfully proud and will not accept charity. In the second place, there is usually much honorable work to be done in connection with most activities. Sound programs provide opportunities for needy pupils to earn the means of their participation without loss of pride, status, or self-respect.

Most school organizations and activities receive and expend revenue. Actually, the range in revenue will be from a few dollars in small schools to thousands of dollars in large schools. In a sound program, the school exercises supervision of the funds through procedures which protect the reputations of the sponsors and the pupils and, at the same time, furnish excellent learning experiences. A plan found to be very satisfactory in many schools is to have the supervision of the financial affairs of the activity program under the control of a committee composed of pupils and teachers. Particularly is the committee desirable when centralized financing of all activities is practiced. The general function of the committee is to guide and direct the financial aspects of the activity program. More specifically, it assists in preparing budgets, helps to secure funds for some needy non-revenue producing activities, supervises the operation of accounting procedures, and secures economical expenditure of funds.

The budgeting of activity funds represents good management and provides pupils with valuable learning experiences. Good practice requires each activity to prepare an itemized budget each year and to abide by its restrictions. However, in schools in which activity fees are paid or general grants are made by the board of education, an all-school activities budget is prepared. The activity committee or student council is usually responsible for preparing the all-school budget and receives requests from the various organizations for portions of the fund.

When the requests are approved, budgets are prepared and submitted to the central treasurer who charges each disbursement against the amounts allocated to the different organizations. Requests for additional funds are granted, modified, or rejected by the budget committee. Unused funds remaining in the account of any organization at the close of the year revert to the general fund.

The proper management of the business affairs of pupil activities removes temptation from all persons involved and protects them, as well as the school, from the dangers of mismanagement and resultant unfavorable criticism. In addition, valuable learning experiences are provided pupils by way of development of moral values, awareness of responsibility, and knowledge of good business procedures.

57. The Pattern of the Activity Program is Determined by the Needs to be Met.

It is difficult, if not impossible, to find a uniform or typical pattern of pupil activities among the schools of the country. The fact that there are wide variations in the way in which the activity program is organized and managed in different schools poses no profound problem. There is no reason why two schools should have the same activities or, for that matter, why a school should strive to maintain the same activities year after year. A live program rids itself of activities which have ceased to perform a vital function and creates new organizations to meet changing needs. Clubs, for instance, which are barely active and obviously no longer meet real needs should be disbanded and new ones organized in light of present interests and needs. To illustrate, if the building of a municipal swimming pool near the school creates interests in swimming on the part of many pupils, there is probably little justification for not forming a Swimming Club, even if other clubs such as the Ping-pong Club or the Badminton Club disappear from the activity program. Perhaps the change would only need to be a temporary one, but even if it proved to be permanent, it would seem justifiable in light of continued demonstrable interests and needs. Without the constant change of healthy growth, the activity program becomes inert and is kept alive only at the expense of unfulfilled pupil needs and through the expenditure of wasted energy.

There is no universal pattern of school activities or plan of organizing and conducting them which will meet the needs of the boys and girls in all schools. The size of the school or of the program of activities is not the important element to be considered. The most important factor is that the activities program be based upon the interests and needs of the pupils in the school. Such a program can hardly become uniform or standardized in the sense that it is organized in the same way that the

programs of other schools are operated and conducted. Probably, standardization in the sense indicated is the one factor most to be avoided. Moreover, the kind of program indicated is developed co-operatively by pupils and teachers, with a large measure of the initiative and responsibility assumed by the boys and girls. It cannot be developed by the principal or the teachers and handed ready made to the pupils of the school, because such a procedure would defeat the real purposes to be achieved through the program itself.

The diversity exhibited in the club programs of schools is testimony to the popularity of school clubs with the boys and girls. In many schools the popularity of clubs is exceeded only by athletic activities. Clubs are organized for many different purposes. Some are academic in nature and include organizations such as the Science Club, the Mathematics Club, the History Club, the Safety Club, the Art Club, the Dramatics Club, the French Club, and the 4-H Club. Other clubs are organized around hobbies, including dancing, hiking, stamp collecting, and travel. Sometimes the development of civic and social responsibilities is the motive for organizing units, including Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Hi-Y, Girl Reserves, and Campfire Girls. Still other clubs are based upon special interests such as radio, nature study, or astronomy. Clubs are among the most versatile kinds of pupil activities; they offer opportunities for pupils to pursue common interests and to explore new ones. They give pupils opportunity for self-expression and provide experiences in exercising initiative and in learning how to work and associate with others in social situations.

A successful club program is based upon the needs and interests of boys and girls, as well as their previous experiences. Certainly, the club program should not be handed from the top down to the pupils. Rather, it should grow out of their recognized needs and interests and be developed in terms of their requests. Periodic evaluation of the club program contributes to its maximum effectiveness and stimulates both pupils and sponsors to keep it vitally alive.

The student of teaching may wonder at the inclusion of the home room in a discussion of pupil activities. Actually, the home room is a means of administering the school and of accounting for and guiding pupils, rather than a pupil activity as such. On the other hand, to omit home rooms from the discussion of activities would leave a gap in the presentation, because of the close relationship of the home room to the operation of the activity program.

In the high school, home-room groups are formed usually on grade levels for every twenty-five to fifty pupils. While the home room may serve a variety of purposes, its greatest contributions to the functioning of the school program are in adminis-

tration, guidance, and pupil activities. In many schools, the home room is actually the center of school activities. The function may be achieved through promoting the home-room program and by contributing to the all-school program of activities. For example, many all-school events are planned and conducted on a home-room basis, or home-room discussion may be undertaken of the kinds of clubs existent in the school, their value, and how to participate in them. Sometimes administrative matters pertaining to pupil activities, such as making announcements, directing drives, and conducting various kinds of elections, center in the home room. In addition, the home room may conduct its own program of activities, including entertainments, socials, and parties to which other home rooms and groups may be invited on occasion.

In most schools the home room is the basis for pupil participation in the operation and control of the school. In addition to having an internal organization for the conducting of its own affairs, each home room usually has a representative on the student council. Members represent their home rooms in the deliberations of the council and conduct appropriate business of the council in the different rooms. Through the opportunities for conducting and managing their own affairs pupils profit from valuable experiences in learning to exercise initiative, assume responsibility, and live and work together.

Many persons in the field of guidance consider the home-room almost indispensable to the successful functioning of the guidance program in the school. As pointed out in Chapter IV, guidance is effective only when it functions in the lives of boys and girls. It is functional when it helps pupils solve their problems and is related to the daily activities and experiences of boys and girls. Through guidance the teacher may be able to help the pupils arrange a program of activities and experiences which will be both interesting and worthwhile. Certainly, the alert beginning teacher will utilize the opportunities provided through the home room for group and individual guidance regarding the nature and value of the various activities. The exercise of guidance in connection with the selection of activities helps to direct the participation of pupils in those endeavors best fitted to their individual needs and interests. Moreover, the work of the home-room teacher along the lines indicated contributes materially to the success of the activities program.

Probably one of the oldest of school activities is the assembly which has become an educational and recreational feature of most school programs. Certainly it is an important part of the program of school activities and is held in almost every school either periodically or at irregular intervals.

Many worthwhile claims have been made for the school assembly. Important among the purposes stated for assemblies

are that they: cultivate school spirit, unify the work and life of the school, promote school and community relations, create appreciations, develop leadership abilities, widen and deepen interests, and encourage worthy use of leisure time.

Perhaps the greatest contributions of assemblies are realized when pupils plan and conduct them. In many schools, pupils are encouraged to participate extensively in assembly programs through the work of a committee on assemblies. Opportunities are provided for pupils to preside at assemblies, plan and conduct the programs, supervise the seating and conduct of the student body, and evaluate the whole program of school assemblies in terms of criteria developed under the auspices of the assembly committee. In planning for pupil participation in assemblies, the committee usually arranges for various areas of the school program to become active. For example, clubs and classes may hold debates and symposiums on important problems and issues of the day, conduct demonstrations, and present programs appropriate for special days and occasions such as Christmas, Thanksgiving, and American Education Week.

Teacher participation in the school assembly has an important place, especially since it gives pupils the opportunity to see their teachers in roles different from those usually observed. When a teacher takes an unusual trip, develops an interesting hobby, or is willing to join other teachers in discussing an important problem, the pupils will profit materially if they can share the experience through the school assembly.

Efforts are often made to broaden the program of assemblies through bringing to the school excellent programs from other schools and organizations and through the performance of professional talent. The provision of professional entertainment may have considerable merit especially if the school is located in such a way as to make attendance at cultural events difficult and unlikely. It is necessary to exercise care in selecting the events to insure a balanced experience. Moreover, the cost of the programs may be prohibitive for many pupils who may need them most. Certainly, it is questionable to follow the practice of some schools of charging pupils admission and sending to a study room or playroom those who cannot afford to pay or who are unwilling to attend.

The school assembly affords the pupil an opportunity to realize the nature and scope of the activities of his school, to understand and accept the common ideals of the school and community, to develop school loyalty and spirit, to understand his relationship to others, to benefit from purposeful group activity and united effort, and to learn the duties and responsibilities of good citizenship.

One of the oldest kinds of pupil activities is athletics. In the elementary school physical activity centers around programs of

instruction and supervised play, with perhaps some relief periods introduced for purposes of recreation and relaxation. The teaching of skills is related closely to the instructional program, with supervised play occurring before and after school and during relief or "change of activity" periods. Plenty of playground space and proper equipment provide opportunities for children to engage in supervised freeplay and to practice the skills developed in the instructional program. Adequate provision for teaching skills in most sections of the country requires gymnasium facilities.

A good elementary program includes a variety of games and activities including folk dancing, volleyball, and formal drills. The better programs exhibit a trend away from unsupervised play at noon or after school and toward supervision of play periods, often by especially trained persons other than the classroom teachers. Interscholastic athletic events are generally not considered to represent good practice on the elementary level, although some elementary schools participate in contests, which usually include track activities. While intramural athletic activities are usually restricted to fourth graders and the pupils above that level, intramurals are being introduced in the lower grades with increasing frequency. A very desirable activity which is practiced by some schools is the play day. On that day pupils and even adults from several schools and the community come together to play games and to participate in athletic and recreational activities. It is entirely possible that such events will become increasingly popular.

In many secondary schools the values which should be realized from interscholastic athletics are being lost because of the emphasis placed upon winning. The training of a few pupils in a sport rather than many, and the building of costly facilities and the purchasing of expensive equipment for athletics to the detriment of other needy areas of the school program—all combine to mark high school sports with the taint of "commercialism" and "big business." Certainly such tendencies ought to be reduced, and emphasis placed instead on the values of athletics for the pupils who participate in them. Actually, the justification of the athletic program rests upon the value of the activities for those who take part. In other words, the success of the program of athletics must be based more and more upon its contribution to the participants and other pupils of the school and less and less upon the number of contests won and the amount of money raised.

School publications are an acceptable part of the life and activity of the student bodies of most, if not all, of the schools of the country. Outstanding among the types of publications are the school paper, yearbook, magazine, and handbook. School publications make many valuable contributions to the life of the

school and the community. Important among the principal functions served by the publications are those of presenting news about the school, informing pupils of school activities, acquainting the community with the accomplishments and problems of the school, building school morale and spirit, unifying the school, and developing pupil initiative and responsibility.

The school newspaper is the most common pupil publication. It is probably the one which provides the most comprehensive and varied educational experience for the pupils involved in the activities of school publications. School newspapers exhibit a wide range of characteristics, from a printed daily paper which approximates commercial standards, to an irregular publication prepared by the members of a class or group and produced in manuscript form. Between the extremes indicated are many variations, including mimeographed editions, columns of school news in commercial newspapers, and, in the lower grades, the "paper" which is "told" by the class or written on the blackboard or a chart. Most secondary schools which publish papers issue them weekly, bimonthly, or monthly.

As its name suggests, the newspaper is primarily concerned with news. Essays, short stories, and poems properly belong in the school magazine. However, in some schools the newspaper has replaced the magazine, and in such instances the paper may carry creative writing on occasion. Some school papers circumvent the problem by issuing a literary supplement at regular intervals. In addition to informing the pupils and patrons of the school news, the paper is used by many schools as a potent medium for interpreting the schools to the public. Thus, the paper in describing and interpreting the needs and accomplishments of the total school program may become a constructive force for better schools in the community. These values and those which accrue to the pupils who participate in the preparation and production of the newspaper make it an educational activity of considerable merit.

Probably the school yearbook or annual, which is found almost exclusively in high schools, is the most controversial of school publications. The principal objection to the yearbook is its high cost and the tremendous expenditure of time and energy by pupils and teachers to produce it. Some schools have attempted to solve the problem by issuing a special senior roto-gravure edition of the school newspaper, containing photographs of the seniors, personal sketches, historical reports, and other material pertaining to the senior class and the graduates. Actually, the yearbook is a history of a class for four years or of the school for an academic year, and the activity of those pupils who produce such a volume results in many worthwhile experiences. The use of standard covers and of the process of lithographing have aided some schools to reduce the cost of the yearbook and

thus to continue a school publication prized by many graduates as a souvenir or memoir of their school days.

The magazine is perhaps the oldest type of school publication. It is designed to provide for the creative literary efforts of the pupils. Sometimes the efforts to make the magazine an inclusive publication carrying news, announcements of coming events, and information for pupil guidance have resulted in its failure to survive. Except in large schools the magazine is not published more often than monthly and in some cases less frequently. Difficulties of finance pose some of the biggest problems usually encountered in the production of the magazine.

One of the newest of school publications is the handbook, which is designed to give new pupils necessary information about the school and to assist them in becoming oriented and adjusted to their new environment. Handbooks usually contain information about school activities, regulations, procedures, traditions, graduation requirements, programs of study, and related material of value to pupils and parents in learning to get acquainted with, and to understand, the school. It is highly desirable that a handbook be written by the pupils rather than the faculty or the principal because of the values involved for those who participate in the preparation and because the language and expression is more likely to appeal to other boys and girls. Handbooks are traditionally difficult to finance, and the usual method of paying for them is to charge each pupil for a copy. The practice, however, can easily defeat the real purpose of the publication unless means are utilized for seeing that each pupil receives a copy regardless of whether or not he is able to pay for it.

The student council is the physical expression of the machinery and organization established in many schools for pupil participation in the government of the school. While the council has appeared in many more secondary than elementary schools the student of teaching is misled to believe that the organization is properly regarded as a high school activity. Certainly the council is as valuable a phase of the life and program of the elementary school as it is of the high school, and efforts should be directed toward greater emphasis on both levels.

As indicated above, the primary purpose and function of the student council is to develop democratic citizenship. Many other purposes have been ascribed to the council, but they are all secondary to the central one outlined in the foregoing statement. Important among the many additional functions listed for the student council are: to provide pupils with the opportunity to participate in the making of policies which affect them, to permit pupils to manage their own activities, to develop wholesome pupil-teacher relationships, and to promote the welfare of the school.

The organization of student councils has received a great amount of study through the years and many patterns of organization have emerged. The goal of any plan is to give each pupil the opportunity to have a voice in the management and control of the school. Actually, pupils need to learn that many voices besides their own desire to be heard and that some means must be employed to give all a chance for expression. A desirable type of organization provides for representation of all pupils, but remains as simple in structure as is commensurate with efficiency of operation. Councils composed of representatives from home rooms or other functioning divisions of the student body are effective in that members are in constant two-way communication with their parent bodies. In very large schools such a plan may result in the council being too big to be an efficient working body. In such instances the committee plan of operation is suggested as a means of overcoming the obstacle of size. Some councils have patterned their organization after governmental agencies, with the result that many times efficiency is impaired because of overcomplication and lack of relationship of subdivisions to the specific functions to be performed. It is better to let the pupils be realistic rather than to create an atmosphere of make-believe.

Councils are usually authorized to participate in making school policy regarding such matters as the general code of conduct of the school, the standards of conduct and behavior of pupils, and the morale of the school. The powers, duties, and responsibilities of the council should be clearly understood, defined, and written into a constitution and set of bylaws. These documents usually deal with such aspects of the council as name, purpose, membership, power and authority, organization, duties of officers, meetings, committees, and means of amending the constitution and bylaws. The authority granted to the council should not be usurped by the sponsor. A sponsor who dominates a student council and prevents it from operating under the power and authority properly delegated to it will likely fail. Such practice results in insincere and cynical attitudes on the part of pupils toward their council because of the pretense with which it operates.

Pupil participation in school management and control needs to be defined with regard to policy-making and administrative responsibility. Although student courts operating under the student council have proved to be successful in some schools, it is doubtful whether the council should undertake the responsibility of becoming the primary disciplinary agency of the school. The student courts which have been effective attempt to deal only with those general rules imposed upon pupils by themselves or adopted by them in their own interests. While the student council may make rules, formulate and adopt policies, or have a part in performing such tasks, the use of pupils

as policemen to enforce regulations ordinarily is not practicable. The best practice limits pupil participation in matters of discipline to policy-making, rather than to judicial functions. When it is properly defined and directed, pupil participation in school management and control makes valuable contributions to the uplifting of the morale of the school, to the development of respect for the rights and privileges of others, and to the assumption of responsibility in a democratic organization.

It is fundamentally important for the beginning teacher to view the program of pupil activities as an outgrowth of the life of the school. Effective activities are always based upon jobs to be done, needs to be met, interests to be served, and services to be performed. The leadership of the beginning teacher in the activities program is most dynamic when he sees that all pupils under his direction have an opportunity to participate in activities which seem worthwhile to them, and when he guides them into well-balanced programs of total school activity.

PROBLEMS

1. Outline ways in which pupil activities meet pupils' needs.
2. List ways in which you may encourage pupils to participate in school activities.
3. Outline the means by which participation of pupils in school activities may be wholesomely encouraged and controlled.
4. Analyze the role of the sponsor of a pupil activity.
5. Observe a good sponsor of an activity as he works with the boys and girls. List the characteristics and attributes which make him successful.
6. Analyze the plan of managing the business affairs of the pupil-activity program in your school.
7. Outline the primary functions of the home room.
8. Make plans covering a semester for conducting a home room on the secondary level in which you are working.
9. Characterize the publications existing in your school. Evaluate them in terms of your concepts of what good publications should be.
10. Analyze the plan of financing publications in your school.
11. Analyze the machinery and organization established in the school in which you are teaching for pupil participation in the government of the school.

Evaluating And Reporting Pupil Progress

WHEREVER there is teaching and learning there is evaluation, because everything a person does is subject to evaluation by himself and others. An individual estimates the value of his experiences in terms of the satisfaction he gains or the degree of progress he makes toward his objectives. In like manner, his activities may be evaluated by others in regard to the progress made toward some goal established by the appraisers. In school situations, evaluation is usually concerned with judgments of actions, achievements, and attitudes. It plays a major part in the establishment of the goals of the teacher and pupils. It provides guidance and direction in making choices, in planning procedures, and in determining next steps.

The evaluation of pupil progress is one of the most difficult tasks confronting the student teacher. Determining whether or not growth is taking place, and how much, are perhaps the most difficult problems in all teaching. The problem of evaluation is made difficult, in part at least, by the effect of tradition upon teachers. The nature and scope of evaluation have heretofore been limited to the confines of a narrow curriculum designed to prescribe information which pupils memorized. Such a narrow conception of evaluation cannot cope with the complexities of a modern program of education involving as it does many goals, including development of understandings, appreciations, attitudes, and social skills. By administering examinations to children,

schools have attempted to measure what has been memorized, and teachers have been considered successful if their pupils did well on the tests. Whether or not the information was retained or used by the boys and girls was not of primary concern.

Recent emphasis in evaluating pupil progress is based on a concept of teaching that attempts to determine what pupils need and to satisfy those needs. Basically, such a method is quite different from the process of establishing preconceived standards used to determine in advance what pupils should have and of administering uniform doses to each child. Increasing attention is being given to evaluating such factors as being able to use information, to draw conclusions from data, and to propose solutions to problems. Evaluation is also concerned with appraisal of the development of a sense of values, the deepening of basic understandings, and the broadening of social and aesthetic appreciations. Even though the type of emphasis indicated has increased the difficulties of evaluation because of the intangibles involved, it has focused the attention of the school upon the growth and adjustment of the child in his environment.

The beginning teacher may properly be concerned about such questions as: With what should the evaluation of pupil progress be concerned? What is measurement? What is evaluation? Who should participate in the evaluation of pupil progress? What part do tests properly play in a sound program of evaluation? What may standardized tests contribute? Teacher-made tests? How are test results properly interpreted and used to evaluate pupil progress? What functions do marks serve? Reports to parents? What is the real basis of promotion?

In the discussion which follows, it seems worthwhile, then, to attempt to throw light on just such questions. Because the use of many instruments and methods of studying and interpreting children's behavior was presented in Chapter IV, the present discussion will be limited to the broader principles and aspects of evaluation as they relate to pupil progress.

58. Measurement Deals with Quantitative Analysis.

Measurement is concerned with collecting, recording, and interpreting quantitative data. Determination of amount is the principal focus of measurement. Because it is concerned with the aspects of an element or situation which lend themselves to quantitative analysis, measurement deals with the tangible factors of whatever is being measured. In teaching, for example, measurement reveals how much a pupil has learned or the amount of change which has occurred in his behavior. It tells nothing of the nature, direction, or desirability of the change in behavior. Measurement, then, informs about the degree of whatever is under consideration. Because it deals with precise quantities,

measurement in education has tended to consist of testing for distinct and limited learnings.

The process of measurement involves securing quantitative data by applying objective techniques and methods. Since objectivity is a primary characteristic of the process, the results obtained from a good measurement should be essentially the same even when different measures do the work. It is essential that the student of teaching learn to apply objective measuring techniques wherever feasible. To attempt, however, to reduce analysis of the factors in teaching and learning to objective measurement in the strictest sense is a virtual impossibility. The factors in the teaching-learning situation are influenced to such a degree by the elements of human nature and the relationships of human beings that efforts to make impersonal measures have not been too successful. The complexity and variability of the multiple factors comprising teaching and learning make strictly objective measurement difficult—or all but impossible—to perform.

59. Evaluation Includes Qualitative Factors.

Use of the term **evaluation** implies more than the substitution of another word for **measurement** because evaluation has a broder connotation. By comparison to objective measurement evaluation secures data concerning the qualitative aspects of whatever is under observation through subjective methods and techniques. The intangible elements of a factor or situation lend themselves more readily to observation and appraisal by evaluative methods than by the techniques of objective measurement. Whereas measurement reveals only the amount of change, evaluation is concerned with the nature and direction of change. In the process of evaluation, for instance, the concern is not only with the changes that education helps to produce in pupils but also with the adequacy and the desirability of the changes. Not only does evaluation strive to answer the question of how much the behavior of the pupil has changed. It hopes to throw light on these questions: How has the behavior changed? In what ways? Have the changes been good or bad? Has the changed behavior been adequate to meet the demands of the situation?

Evaluation in educational work encompasses a wide range of human activity. It includes the processes and methods by which growth in the physical, mental, emotional, and social areas of development are recorded and appraised. It is the part of the teacher's work which is concerned with the effect of school experiences upon pupils.

60. The Progress of Pupils Is Evaluated in Terms of Sound Educational Objectives.

Against what criteria is the evaluation of pupil progress to be made? The answer to the question when stated directly is:

the educational objectives to be achieved. Evaluation of pupil progress then becomes the process of gathering, examining, and interpreting the evidence of the success pupils have attained in reaching the goals toward which they have been striving.

In Chapter V it was shown that the objectives toward which the work of the school is directed stem from the philosophy underlying the educational program. Objectives, moreover, have been defined as certain desirable changes in the behavior of pupils to be achieved through the educational activities and experiences (curriculum) provided and directed by the school. In other words, as teachers and pupils go about their work, they should keep in mind the purposes toward which they are working. The activities and experiences included in the curriculum should produce the kind of behavior in pupils which is a product of the stated goals to be achieved. Within such a framework, then, the program of evaluation operates. It functions within the bounds of the educational philosophy, is guided and directed by the purposes which shape the curriculum of the school, and is concerned with determining the extent to which the school is reaching its goal through changing the behavior of the children it serves. Evaluation, then, is an integral part of the teaching-learning process and may not be separated from it.

Desirable goals are designed to cover many aspects of pupil growth, including the child's mental, emotional, physical, and social development. It is imperative that the goals be defined in terms of specific and observable behavior rather than vague generalities. Translating goals into observable behavior requires the student teacher to answer such questions as: What does a child do when he gets along well with others? How does a child achieve status in his peer group? How does a pupil learn to assume responsibility? What does a pupil do when he works effectively with his group? How does a child learn to draw conclusions from data? What does a pupil do when he learns to communicate thought?

It is also important that goals be defined in terms of pupils' lives and present needs rather than be projected into the future. It is gratifying to prepare the future parents, wage earners, and citizens of tomorrow; but the boys and girls are living here and now. They will not exist in a vacuum until tomorrow comes—their present needs demand to be met. And, as urged repeatedly, another important factor in the formulation of desirable outcomes is the establishment of goals that can be attained by the particular pupils for whom the objectives are determined. The development of a sound appraisal program relates to goals which are within reasonable reach of the pupils.

Too often beginning teachers test only for the retention of subject matter—important as it is—and assume that other ob-

jectives are being achieved. Such practice is totally inadequate. It requires a broad program of evaluation to appraise learning in the many areas involved in the developing of attitudes, knowledge and understandings, and functional skills. The translation of objectives into terms of observable behavior and the employment of a broad approach to evaluation do not assure the adequate appraisal of pupil growth. They are, however, necessary first steps without which adequate evaluation is impossible. Not only are the processes prerequisite to adequate evaluation, but they operate to foster effective teaching. In other words, by knowing the kind of pupil behavior desired and the results achieved in attaining it, the teacher can help pupils develop the abilities, the understandings, the attitudes, and the values they need. Nevertheless, after goals have been established, clarified, and defined, there still remains the problem of devising means for discovering the degree to which the achievement of the purposes is being realized. There is no easy solution to the problem.

61. Standardized Tests Are Valuable Tools of Education.

Standardized tests are of value in learning to understand the educational needs and accomplishments of boys and girls. The selection of standardized tests well suited to the evaluation task at hand requires some knowledge of the principal characteristics of good tests. Probably the most important characteristic of a test is its validity. A test is said to be valid if it does in fact measure what it is designed to measure. For example, a test meant to measure arithmetic knowledge and skill is not a valid test of mechanical aptitude. It is a valid test of knowledge and skill in arithmetic if it actually measures that particular knowledge and skill and not some other ability or trait. Thus, a test is valid for a specific purpose. Furthermore, it is valid for that purpose with a specific group of children and to the degree to which it achieves its proposed purpose. A test may have high validity for one purpose, slightly less validity for another, and practically none for still another purpose. Thus, the arithmetic test referred to above may possess high validity for the purpose of ranking a group of lower-grade children in order of their total achievement in arithmetic, but it may have less validity for measuring the general arithmetic achievement of uppergrade pupils. It may have little, if any, validity for discriminating among high school pupils in the same subject.

A valid test, then, measures the attainment of specific objectives of instruction. Since this is true, it is possible for a teacher to form a concept of the validity of a test by carefully inspecting its content in relation to what the pupils are supposed to have learned. The type of validity indicated is what is known as curricular validity. Standardized tests are validated in several ways. One way is to compare the test with the common elements of several other tests. Another method is to use

the elements common to several tests or courses of study. A third and most common method is to secure the judgment of experts in the field.

It is perfectly proper for the student teacher to believe in measuring a knowledge of facts. It is a mistake, however, to assume that such a measurement is a valid test of all the changes produced through a unified experience. A test is not a valid measure of the results of teaching and learning if it measures only the tools required for attaining the desired objectives. Valid measurements and evaluations include, for example, the ability to apply the facts learned in order to demonstrate successful achievement of the changes produced by the learning situation.

Another important characteristic of a test is reliability. If a test measures faithfully and consistently whatever it is intended to measure, it is said to be reliable. For example, if a standardized English test is given a second time to the same class and the pupils score in about the same relative order, the test is reliable. Usually, reliability is determined by securing the relationship between scores of a group of pupils on "chance halves" of a test. One way of securing chance halves is to divide the test into halves by placing all odd numbered items in one section and the even numbered ones in another. The two halves would then be administered to the same group of pupils and if their scores were well related, the test would be reliable. That is to say, if the pupils who scored high in the first half also made good scores in the second half, and if those who made medium and low scores on the one half scored accordingly on the other, then there would be a high degree of relationship existing between the two sets of scores. Reliability may also be assessed by determining the relationship between scores on two different forms of the same test, or successive administrations of the same form.

The extent of relationship is usually expressed as a coefficient of correlation. Such coefficient may range from a -1.00 , which indicates a perfect negative relationship, through 0.00 , which shows that two sets of data have no relationship, to $+1.00$, which tells that there is complete agreement. When a coefficient of reliability is below $+ .70$, it is generally considered unsatisfactory.

The coefficient of correlation between two sets of scores, as indicated, is the usual method of expressing the reliability of a test. It is called a reliability coefficient. The size of a reliability coefficient is affected by the range of pupil ability in the group. If the range is fairly large (other factors being the same), the test results will tend to agree and the reliability will be higher than if the differences among the pupils were small.

Other characteristics which the prospective teacher should observe when selecting tests include cost, ease of administration

and scoring, comparability, and population used for standardization. The cost of published tests is often a factor in choosing the kinds and types of tests desired. Always, though, it is wiser to select a test prepared by a reliable publisher even if its cost is slightly more than another instrument the authenticity of which is not known.

Accuracy of test results is influenced greatly by the way tests are administered and scored. Sometimes the results are completely invalidated by faulty administration or scoring. Directions for administering and scoring, which are prepared by the author and supplied by the publisher, should be followed exactly in order to assure authentic results. Complicated processes of administering or scoring tend to reduce the accuracy to be attained. It is advisable to select a test which is relatively easy to administer and to score. Ease of scoring, in addition to improving accuracy of results, saves many man-hours of work.

The use of tests having equivalent forms is wise if comparison of the performance of the group at a later date with the original test results is desired. Comparability of different test forms makes such comparison easy and probably more accurate than use of the same form twice.

Standardized tests are to be used for the purposes for which they are designed. The prospective teacher who learns to select, administer, score, and interpret the tests wisely has access to a vast storehouse of helpful information about the achievements, abilities, progress, and needs of the boys and girls he teaches.

62. Teacher-Made Tests Are Common Means of Evaluation.

Testing is one of the important aspects of teaching. The use of tests is helpful to the teacher in clarifying many phases of his work, such as the development of skills, the command of fundamental processes, the promotion of pupils, and the effectiveness of methods and techniques. The use of informal teacher-made tests is by far the widest application of testing employed in the schools of today. There are a number of questions which the tests teachers give should help to answer. Important among such questions are: Exactly what is the test measuring? Factual information? Acquisition of skills? Do the responses to the different items throw light on a pupil's needs? Are the results revealing conditions concerning the whole group? As the result of the test, what can be done to improve the work of the group and to promote the growth of the individual pupils?

The kinds of questions which tests should help teachers answer indicate that tests are administered for various reasons. The teacher who administers a pretest at the beginning of an activity is able to use pupils' backgrounds to make learning meaningful. A diagnostic test reveals the nature of an individual

pupil's strengths and weaknesses and helps to explain why he makes errors. Teaching-tests are designed as instructional tools to help the pupil gain the most from his learning experiences. If a test is to fulfill its intended function, it must be properly and carefully prepared. Questions and items hurriedly jotted down on a piece of paper a few minutes before test time will likely have little validity. Certainly, such a test would be largely ineffectual in furnishing the kind of information necessary for intelligent evaluation of the progress boys and girls are making. Test construction is a time-taking, highly specialized process demanding certain skills. The prospective teacher is not expected to become a test expert, but it is necessary for him to know the basic principles and processes involved in making a good test. And because of the many volumes devoted to test construction, only the important general aspects of building tests need be presented here. For detailed suggestions the student is referred to the references in this volume and to other standard works on test construction.

Perhaps the student teacher will be tempted to ask himself first whether or not he should make an essay-type or an objective-type test. While the question will eventually have to be answered, it is not the wisest approach to the building of a test. The first consideration should be considered with what the test is expected to measure. Only then can the question of the kind of items—whether essay- or objective-type—be answered. Usually an outline of the purposes of the test and the areas to be included is the best approach. While the outline need not be extensive, it should indicate the relative importance of the different areas and thus help in the selection of items and prevent heavy concentration upon some phases and relative neglect of others.

Essay tests of the conventional type are criticized from several standpoints. It is known that the ambiguity and vagueness of the questions, and the limited sampling, tend to make the tests invalid and unreliable. If essay questions are worded loosely and vaguely, they do not convey to the pupil what is expected. Many questions begin with such words as **discuss**, **tell**, and **describe**. For example: Discuss the causes of the Industrial Revolution. Tell all you can about the results of the Napoleonic Wars. Describe Cooper's style of writing. Indefinite questions of the kind indicated encourage the pupil to guess and to write as much as possible on the item with the hope that some of his response will touch upon the topic and receive credit.

At best a test is a sample of what has been learned and the assumption is made that the responses to the items represent the abilities of the pupil in the whole area being sampled. The limited sampling of most essay tests tends to make them unreliable indicators of what pupils have learned.

Finally, essay tests are criticized because of the difficulties encountered in scoring them. There are classic examples of erroneous scoring of such tests. In one instance a set of English composition and literature papers was graded by a selected group of teachers. At a later date the identical papers were again graded by the same teachers but this time the grades on the various papers were quite different. Coupled with the problem of subjectivity of scoring is the objection to the teacher having to spend large amounts of time and energy in grading essay-type questions.

Even in the face of the criticisms directed against them, essay-type tests probably have a place and should not be abandoned. Many believe that the tests call upon the pupil to do reflective thinking, to solve problems, and to organize materials in an unusual way. The characteristics indicated may be realized if the beginning teacher recognizes them, believes in this desirability, sees the inadequacy of many tests, and learns how to make good questions and how to be discriminate in evaluating the answers. For example, questions which call for definitions, listings, and enumerations are nearly always superior to the kinds of items indicated above, which require vague discussion, explanation, and telling. The subjectivity of scoring may be reduced by preparing scoring guides that are fairly specific and direct attention to the major outcomes desired.

The student teacher is no doubt cognizant of the increasing use and popularity of the objective-type test. It does not, however, resolve all the difficulties associated with the use of essay tests. Objective-type questions are relatively easy to score. They are objective, and conservative regarding time and energy—at least in their scoring—and they tend to make a valid sampling of pupils' abilities and of what they have learned. On the other hand, the tests take more time to construct, often contain ambiguous items, and tolerate or even encourage guessing. All of the criticisms may be met, in part at least, by striving to create better objective-type questions. The questions need not stress incidentals or be limited to the recall of isolated facts, because it is possible to construct the items so that they call for the ability to judge, to interpret, and to apply. For example, a situation may be presented in a statement and then the pupil be asked to analyze the basic principles involved or to determine the truth of the statement in terms of what has been learned. Moreover, a situation may be presented which is different from any encountered in the classwork, and the test designed to see how well the pupil can apply what he has learned. The extent of the development of a pupil's abilities may be analyzed and determined by basing upon a single problem several items which call for different skills and understandings.

The most common kinds of objective-type questions which the average prospective teacher will have occasion to use include true-false, multiple choice, completion, and matching. Actually,

the true-false item is a form of the alternative-response question. Pupils are usually asked to choose between true-false, right-wrong, or yes-no situations. It is not easy to prepare items in relatively short, clear-cut statements which contain only a single idea. Partly true or false statements or "catch" questions have no place in a test. The idea of testing is not to catch a pupil "off guard" but to determine the extent to which he has achieved desired goals. In order to discourage guessing, the alternative-response tests are sometimes scored by subtracting the wrong from the right responses and ignoring the omitted ones. Pupils like to count the number right as their score, and there is research evidence to show that the rank of the members of a group is essentially the same when the score is based upon the number correct without subtracting the wrong responses.

A multiple-choice or selective-response item requires a pupil to choose the correct or best answer from a list of four or five possible responses which follow a direct statement or question. For example :

1. There is evidence to show that mental growth:
 - a. ceases at age eighteen.
 - b. continues to age twenty.
 - c. never ceases.
 - d. continues at least until the period of senility is reached.

It is wise to include in the main body of the statement or problem as much of the question as possible, thus reducing the length of the responses. While only one response is the correct or best answer, all of those listed should be plausible. Items are improved by locating the expected response among the others in a varied manner in the different questions and never according to a fixed pattern. Ease of scoring is facilitated by following the format of the foregoing example so that the letter or number of the pupil's answer is written on the line at the left of the number of the question. When all question numbers are kept in vertical line, a scoring key may be easily prepared and used to score the papers.

Completion questions may be written in the form of simple-recall or short-answer items. In either form the pupil must recall rather than recognize the answer. Some teachers feel that the completion item may be better adapted to some fields, including mathematics and science, rather than to others, such as social studies, although general practice shows that the type of question is highly flexible and adaptable to many areas and kinds of material. For example :

1. How many sides has a decagon?

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|----|---|
| (a) | 2. | The sum of three numbers is 144. If the second is twice |
| (b) | | the first and the third is three times the first, the numbers |
| (c) | | are: |
| (a)———, (b)———, and (c)———. | | |

3. The first nation to settle what is now Florida was _____ .
4. The author of *Robinson Crusoe* is _____ .

All blanks within the items as well as the lines intended for the answers should be of the same length. If articles *a* or *an* precede a blank, they tend to act as a cue to the response. While a good item requires a single idea for each blank, the best practice permits the respondent freedom in his choice of words. Hence the use of statements from printed material with critical words omitted does not represent good practice because it tends to encourage mere memorization rather than basic understanding.

The matching test requires the pupil to match the items listed in one column with the explanatory statements given in a second column. The number or letter of the correct statements is written beside the item in the first column. For example :

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| —1. John Adams | A. First Secretary of Treasury
of the United States. |
| —2. James Oglethorpe | B. Leader of Quakers. |
| —3. Alexander Hamilton | C. Second President of the
United States. |
| | D. Governor of Virginia |
| | E. Founded Georgia colony. |

Unbalancing the columns makes the test more difficult because the process of elimination alone will not disclose the correct answers. The number of pairs to be matched usually ranges from ten to fifteen in a good test. If long lists of items are to be included they may be grouped into different matching tests. Good practice results from requiring the matching of like elements, such as the names of men in history with outstanding deeds, events, and accomplishments, or significant dates with important events, and so forth. The mixing of names, dates, events, and terms in a single matching test usually makes it difficult to word the explanatory statements in such a way as to prevent the disclosure of the correct response.

Unfortunately, the attitude of many beginning teachers toward tests tends to be one of complacent overconfidence. Probably, the development of such an attitude is not wholly the fault of the teachers but partly the result of their not having been made aware of the imperfections of the tests they make and use. Consequently, they have been content to rely heavily upon test results and to remain aloof from efforts to improve practice.

The heavy reliance of teachers upon tests, and the ways in which they have been used to reveal the instructors' concepts of values in what has been taught and learned, have resulted in undesirable attitudes of pupils toward tests. Too often pupils

fear tests because of the emphasis teachers place upon test performance and its relationship to promotion. The solution lies in the direction of improving test construction and use. Certainly the attitude of many educators is that tests need to be improved and used with prudence and wisdom to contribute more effectively toward the realization of desired goals. It does not seem likely that the demands of those who wish to remove tests entirely from educational practice will be well received. Probably, a more widely acceptable solution is, as indicated, to continue to improve the tests themselves and to use them to reveal the attainment of sound educational objectives in a better way.

Whether or not tests are valuable is dependent upon the extent to which they reveal the learning or the changes in behavior which are taking place in children. At best, tests can only parallel the real behavior of pupils. As indicated, they sample the behavior of boys and girls and by that means reveal the nature of the way children behave. Tests are valid to the extent that they reveal the real behavior of pupils. They are reliable if they consistently reveal that behavior. Too often beginning teachers assume that test situations are more valid than the real-life experiences of pupils. Such a condition cannot exist. The most that may be expected is that a test furnish a quick way of observing and determining what might be learned in perhaps an even better way by having more experience with a child. The real purpose of tests is to assist in the evaluative function, which is aimed at evaluating the actual behavior of boys and girls.

63. Test Results Must Be Properly Interpreted and Used.

Of what value are test results unless they are used in meeting the needs of pupils? A test means little in itself. Test results filed in cabinets or recorded, however beautifully, on record cards are valueless except when teachers use the information in their daily work with boys and girls. Sometimes the results of tests are misused and actually do harm to the pupils involved. Unfortunately, the results of tests in the hands of a misguided teacher may be used to label or brand a child who has not done well as an incapable individual doomed to failure. On the other hand, the intelligent use of tests brings into use the whole matter of varying teaching to meet varying needs.

How is the prospective teacher to interpret test results? Do they tell him that the pupils have learned more when he teaches them, or are his tests easier than others? Is the group actually reading extensively and learning more with the particular methods being used, or is the student teacher overly enthusiastic about what he is doing? Have all pupils been stimulated to work harder, or is the test too easy?

The answers depend upon the factors indicated in the queries and on others located in the various aspects of the teaching-learning situation. For example, if standardized tests are considered the answers to the questions definitely will be influenced by the use made of the norms. When norms are looked upon as indicators of superior teaching and achievement, they profoundly influence the quality of the teaching and the nature of the learning. The norms of a test do not determine the goals of any group because they are nothing more than statistics indicating average achievement. National norms reflect average attainment of large groups of pupils who range from dull to bright, and who are taught poorly and well in schools which are impoverished, mediocre, or excellent. In a specific teaching-learning situation, the national norms may indicate far too low a level of achievement to serve as a desirable goal for the group. On the other hand, the use of norms as desirable objectives may establish goals far beyond the reach of the group.

The conscientious student teacher, who strives to attain the norm with his pupils, may or may not be exercising good judgment, depending upon the way his group compares with the children on whom the test was standardized. Intelligently interpreted norms are indicative of the success attained by average teaching, if the pupils have backgrounds of experience and knowledge comparable to those on whom the test was standardized.

Probably no test or series of tests can diagnose the behavior of individual pupils well enough to replace the judgment of teachers who know the children. Certainly the foregoing discussion makes it clear that a test score alone is insufficient information for the making of an adequate diagnosis of a pupil's behavior. It should not be assumed, however, that test results may not be used to indicate pupils' achievement in sufficient detail to permit discovery of weaknesses and to analyze the underlying causes of error. Generally speaking, nearly every achievement test, whether essay, objective, standardized, or teacher-made, can be made to serve some diagnostic purpose. The tests which the prospective teacher makes, for example, can be constructed to give evidence of such behavior as the development of verbal skills, the formulation of attitudes, the interpretation of data, the location of information from various sources, and the comprehension and understanding of directions. In addition to sampling the mastery of subject matter, which has been their traditional strength, standardized achievement tests now assist the student of teaching in evaluating such factors of behavior as social competence, critical thinking, and social attitudes.

The primary source of usefulness is the indication that tests give of the strengths and weaknesses of pupils, and of their successes and difficulties. It is not nearly enough for the begin-

ning teacher to stop with the knowledge that his group or an individual in it made a high or low score by comparison with others. It is such use of test results that has become inconsistent with the educational philosophy of this volume, which advances the belief that a pupil's curriculum is based upon his needs and capacities and related to his interests. The more detailed the analysis of the pupil's needs and the causes of his errors, the greater is the teacher's opportunity to guide and direct his learning and development.

64. Evaluation Uses Many Kinds of Information.

The behavior of boys and girls is very complicated, and many times it is difficult to understand and interpret. Equally complex and difficult are some of the processes and methods which it is necessary to use in making an intelligent evaluation of the modifications which occur in pupils' behavior. A great amount of information is needed by the beginning teacher who seeks to evaluate adequately and intelligently the kind, quantity, and nature of the changes which take place in the pupils he teaches.

Tests are but one means of studying pupils and of furnishing the information necessary to evaluate the progress they have made toward attaining desired goals. Observations of boys and girls in the daily activities of the educational program afford the student of teaching many opportunities to judge the progress being made. Sociometric techniques may help to throw light on the social and emotional development of children. Similarly, aptitude tests, interest and personality inventories, case studies, various kinds of records, including the anecdotal type, and conferences and interviews with pupils, parents, teachers, and even other persons—all have a contribution to make toward evaluating the changes taking place in pupils.

The student is referred to Chapter IV, and especially to Principle 22, for a discussion of the different methods listed above and of their application to the understanding and interpreting of children's behavior. It is hoped that the principles of the present chapter will not be considered a complete analysis of evaluation and measurement. Rather, they must be coupled with the methods and techniques described in Chapter IV if the student of teaching is to do an adequate job of evaluating the progress of the pupils he teaches.

Perhaps an illustration of the application of the principles and materials of the two chapters will make clear what the student is asked to do in dealing with his problems of evaluation. The example comes from the work of a supervisor in the schools of Lexington, Kentucky. Many kinds of measurement and evaluation are utilized by the teachers in determining the extent of the achievements of the pupils and in evaluating the results of their work with the boys and girls they teach. The supervisor

and the elementary teachers of the system have been focusing their attention upon ways of evaluating intangibles in the teaching-learning situation which do not lend themselves easily to objective measurement. The teachers have become concerned about the results they are achieving with pupils along such lines as participation in group activities, development of interest in the work at hand, willingness to share, ability to work independently, development of broad interests, and ability to exercise leadership. Through supervisor-teacher pupil planning, the group has been able to devise improved ways of evaluating pupil growth. The device shown in Figure 5 illustrates the simplicity of the method.

Each time the behavior of a child exhibits any of the characteristics listed on the chart in Figure 3, a check mark is placed opposite his name in the column headed by the factor to be evaluated. Such a procedure furnishes a kind of profile of each individual, since the array of check marks opposite his name gives some indication of the nature of his development. A brief descriptive summary of each case is recorded at the extreme right side of the chart. The record of the dates covered by the period of evaluation furnishes a base line for estimating progress. The technique has been used at some grade levels by both the teachers and the pupils. During a period of time, a teacher and a pupil make separate evaluations of the progress made. At the end of the evaluation period, they compare findings, estimate progress, and decide what further efforts are required.¹

The example serves to bring together several principles of evaluation to which attention has been called. A base line of evaluation is established—it is the beginning date of observation from which point progress is measured. A period of evaluation is determined—the time included between the beginning and ending dates. The establishment of base lines and periods of evaluation add definiteness and tangibility to the evaluative process for both teacher and pupils. Further tangibility is added by the profile made by the array of check marks. Finally, traits have been defined in terms of real behavior which both teacher and pupils can understand and observe. Needs and directions for further efforts are indicated by those specific aspects of behavior which the child should acquire or modify in order to become a well-developed individual.

65. Evaluation of Pupil Progress Is a Co-operative Process.

The evaluation of the progress of pupils is as much a responsible activity of all concerned as is participation by the teacher and pupil in the activities of the teaching-learning situation.

1. Adapted from Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1953, pp. 254-256.

	DATE		GROUP PARTICIPATION	INTEREST IN WORK	WILLINGNESS TO SHARE	ABILITY TO WORK INDEPENDENTLY	BROAD INTERESTS	LEADERSHIP	
	From	To							
Mary			✓✓	✓✓✓			✓✓	✓✓✓	Self-Centered-Needs Direction
Charles			✓	✓	✓✓	✓✓✓			Generous
Tommy				✓✓✓✓		✓✓✓✓			Introverted
Ruby									Colorless
Terry			✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	All-round Student

GROUP PARTICIPATION

1. Offers suggestions and information during group discussion
2. Volunteers for group jobs
3. Listens while others talk

INTEREST IN WORK

1. Contributes to discussions
2. Uses reference materials
3. Brings materials from home for group use
4. Attempts construction work

WILLINGNESS TO SHARE

1. Takes only his fair share of the teacher's and the group's time
2. Shares materials with group
3. Respects ideas of others

ABILITY TO WORK INDEPENDENTLY

1. Shows confidence in his ability to do the work
2. Completes assignments with a minimum of help
3. Finds worthwhile occupation for free time

BROAD INTERESTS

1. Reads more and better books
2. Participates in more varied group activities
3. Feels responsibility of citizenship

LEADERSHIP

1. Works well with others
2. Helps make new pupils welcome
3. Makes a good committee chairman
4. Does not insist that his own plans be accepted
5. Makes wise choices of students to execute committee plans

FIGURE 3. Method of Evaluating Intangibles in a Teaching-Learning Situation. (Adapted from Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1953, pp. 254-255.)

Determining whether or not change in behavior has occurred can be done by the teacher and the pupil, but judging the nature and direction of the modifications which have taken place involves all concerned, including parents and administrators. Actually, the persons involved are all going to evaluate the progress of pupils, whether or not the opportunity is afforded for formal participation in the process of evaluation. Excluding others except the pupil and teacher from the business of evaluation stunts the growth of healthy school-home relations and prevents receipt of the excellent help such persons may give. Including them builds group spirit and assures the making of more valid judgments.

Including parents in the evaluation of the progress their children make in school serves to increase the effectiveness of the learning situation. To be sure, parents cannot participate in evaluating all the activities of pupils, and it is not reasonable to expect such participation. On the other hand, they can help plan the kinds of behavioral changes most desirable for their children to achieve and assist in establishing the criteria by which the progress of the achievement is judged. Having had a part in the determination of goals and the evaluation of pupils' progress toward them, parents are less likely to misunderstand and criticize the school program than if they had been excluded. Moreover, parental participation of the type indicated orients the educational function of the home toward the program of the school and thereby creates a more efficient total learning situation for the child.

Enlisting the participation of pupils in evaluating their work and progress assists and encourages them to formulate goals of their own and to plan intelligently to reach their objectives. One of the principal contributions of evaluation to the education of boys and girls is the help it gives in assisting them to learn how to control and improve the conditions which surround them. Only those persons who have together established their desired goals and planned a program of activity to reach the purposes can truly evaluate the progress they have made toward achieving the recognized objectives. Evaluation should be viewed by all concerned as a constructive process aimed at improving learning.

The participation of pupils in evaluation develops their abilities to become increasingly self-directive. As the pupil matures, he should play an increasingly important part in the evaluation of his development and in the analysis of his strengths and weaknesses. The value of the foregoing statements becomes apparent when the type of evaluative technique described in Principle 64 (of this chapter) is applied to self-evaluation by pupils. If, as suggested, a pupil learns to apply the technique to his own activity and behavior and finds, perhaps with the help

of the teacher, that he is not learning to work independently, he has discovered for himself a basic need for improvement. The fact that he has himself discovered the need is significantly important because it is now a need of which he is truly cognizant and not merely one called to his attention by the teacher. This is not to say that the revelation of needs by teachers is unimportant. Rather, it means that the evaluation by pupils of their activities and experiences in terms of personal life goals makes the pupils increasingly able to determine their needs and to plan ways of meeting them. Certainly the goals of pupils differ, and each pupil must take into consideration his own particular objectives and the degree to which he is achieving them. Moreover, he must relate such factors to his preferred activities, as these become meaningful within the framework of his plans for the future. Self-evaluation becomes more and more necessary to determining satisfactory achievement as boys and girls progress toward maturity.

The co-operative evaluation of pupil progress helps all concerned to judge the worth of individual activities in terms of personal goals and of broader social objectives and purposes.

66. Evaluation of Pupil Progress Is a Continuous, Recurrent Process.

Evaluation is not an end in itself—it is a means to an end. The progressive development of the pupil is the justification for the evaluation procedure. Thus, evaluation which is fragmentary or which is postponed until the end of a process or period of activity is relatively useless. Terminal evaluations make possible a review of experience, but they do not permit the experience to be improved while it is in progress. On the other hand, evaluation which is continuous as to operation may be directed toward the nature of objectives, as well as pupil development. It has been stated that the nature and direction of the change in behavior are as important as the amount of change itself. Effective evaluation focuses upon the kinds of objectives to be attained in terms of their desirability in light of pupils' needs, interests, and abilities, as well as the extent to which the goals have been reached.

Continuous evaluation implies that appraisal and revision are included as integral parts of the teaching-learning process. As such, the procedures must provide for the discovery of needs, the formulation of objectives, the study of activities and experiences in light of sound principles of teaching and learning; the determination of the extent of attainment of the objectives, and the analysis of the adequacy of the objectives themselves. This procedure must recur in a continuing cycle if evaluation is actually to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the school.

By employing continuous evaluation, the prospective teacher is able to improve the quality of the learning experiences by preventing waste of time and effort and unnecessary overlapping and duplication. Constant comparison of the progress at every stage of the learning process with the status of the work at the beginning of an activity enables the student teacher to determine whether continuous or sporadic progress is being made. The lack of continuous progress may indicate the need for discarding some types of experience and replacing them with those of greater worth. In this way time and energy are conserved and profitless busy work is eliminated. Thus, to evaluate only at the end of an activity does not always reveal what has taken place. It may be that the pupil had an advanced knowledge of the activity in the beginning and needed another kind of experience, or he may have frittered away his time until he knew the evaluation was to occur and then attempted to conceal his waste of time. Probably, terminal evaluation of the type indicated is most helpful in formulating next steps and in planning future activities.

If the student of teaching is actually to improve the teaching-learning situation to a significant degree, and if this improvement is to be of real and lasting value, then it is necessary to make continuous studies of the needs of pupils and of the extent to which these needs are being met. Provision must also be made for meeting the needs. Continuous evaluation permits determination of the points at which activities and experiences cease to be profitable in meeting the needs of pupils, and assists in the redirection of the program.

67. Marks Should Reflect the Attainment of Objectives.

In reality, a mark is a symbol intended to show a pupil and his parents how well he is succeeding. Thus, it becomes the vehicle for conveying ideas to parents and pupils concerning school success, even though the mark is merely the abbreviation of the ideas themselves. While marks undoubtedly convey ideas to parents, to pupils, and even to teachers about the school's estimate of the pupil's achievements, the grades do not give assurance of the validity or reliability of the estimate. Furthermore, marks usually communicate little information to parents or pupils concerning ways in which achievement may be improved.

Marks are used to stimulate children to greater learning effort and to motivate behavior. If this function of marks were realized fully with every pupil, there would not be any question concerning the positive values derived. Examination reveals, however, that in practice marks may not encourage pupils to exert their best efforts, and may actually discourage them. Consider, for example, the case of Mary Henderson, who is having difficulty with arithmetic skills in grade five. Her teacher continues to issue low marks based on comparative estimates of

Mary's achievement with brighter members of the group. Try as hard as she can Mary probably will never achieve at the same level as her brighter peers, and hence she must be satisfied with an inferior rating. There is evidence though that Mary is not satisfied, but is becoming discouraged and is making only a token effort to do her work.

In the same group with Mary Henderson is George Roberts. George is a bright boy who apparently quickly and easily learns the arithmetic skills. His success is not necessarily motivating him to acquire the proper values. In other words, his scholarship will assist him to attain the high mark as an end in itself, but he is not interested in acquiring the excellent knowledge of arithmetic which is what the superior rating is supposed to indicate.

Stated in another way, the need for marks to stimulate pupil effort is based upon the assumption that pupils do not wish to undergo the experiences provided for them by the school. To some extent the assumption is true. Teachers have resorted to the controls exemplified by marks to force pupils to participate in predetermined learning activities, to learn subject matter prescribed in advance, and slavishly to follow dictated courses of study. Under the whiplash of threatened failure or the pressure of the publicly announced honor roll, both slow and bright pupils have been urged to greater efforts. Thus, in actuality the use of marks in the ways indicated has served the same purposes as the cane and the paddle.

Hence, the claim that marks motivate pupils in proper ways has to be examined critically. What is more, an educational program which has to depend upon the extrinsic motivation of devices such as marks to get pupils to work is open to criticism concerning its character and quality. A sound, strong school program furnishes its own motivation.

The most valid use of marking is to help the pupil, his teacher, and his parents to discover his strong and weak points. Once that information is known, then a program designed to meet the pupil's needs may be intelligently planned. Moreover, it is only in light of such facts that the pupil's experiences and the aspects of the school program can be sensibly organized to provide optimum conditions for assuring continuous progress.

The student teacher is undoubtedly familiar with several marking systems, including, perhaps, percentages, letter grades, descriptive terms, check lists, or class rank. Probably the oldest system is the percentage method, which is rapidly being replaced. The inherent weaknesses of the system are almost too well known to be repeated here. It seems sufficient to say that the basic weaknesses include the need for teacher to make too many fine discriminations of the values involved and the false

assumption that the differences between consecutive percentages at different points on the scale from 0 to 100 are equal. For example, the difference between 19 and 20 is not equivalent to the difference between 95 and 96, even though teachers apparently consider the differences to be equal.

Letter grades and descriptive terms have become quite popular. Usually the letter grade system is built upon a five-point scale—**A, B, C, D, and F**. Similarly, the descriptive terms have been made to reflect five distinctions—Superior, Excellent, Good, Poor, and Failure. Sometimes the refinement of the terms is reduced to three, or even to two, categories, such as Satisfactory, Unsatisfactory, and Improving or to Pass and Fail. Many school people argue that such descriptive terms do not reveal the evaluation of pupil progress any more effectively than letter grades.

In order to introduce more refinement and to base estimations of progress more upon behavioral changes, check lists of traits and abilities, as well as subject matter, are employed.

The matter of ranking a fairly large group of pupils in all the areas of learning included in the elementary school, or even on the secondary level, is nearly too great a task to be attempted successfully by today's busy teacher. While class rank is used in some high schools, the elementary schools have not been inclined to adopt the practice.

The interpretation placed upon marks by pupils, teachers, and parents is important. There is no doubt that a mark is an inadequate informational device, simply because it cannot be intelligently interpreted by anyone. The trouble stems from the fact that the mark is actually a single symbol which represents numerous values of different types. For example, what does the mark of 75 mean for Mary Henderson, the little fifth grade girl referred to earlier? Does it mean that Mary knows 75 per cent of all the arithmetic skills in the course of study or of those included on the final test? Were Mary's attitude toward the work and the fact that she tried hard and worked up to capacity included in Mary's grade of 75 per cent? Were her understanding and mastery of different skills such as solving word problems and understanding number concepts all at the 75 per cent level?

George Roberts, who was in Mary's group in arithmetic, made 95 per cent. George will remain the highest in the class without having to do more work if the others, who were all below him, do not raise their scores beyond his on the retest and if he scores as high as he did at first. Does George's mark mean high achievement on an absolute scale, or in relation to the achievement of the group? Does it mean he has attained high achievement in relation to his own ability? The score of 95 per cent standing alone does not say.

In another school, Henry Rogers received a **B** in English composition. Is Henry's achievement at the **B** level in all aspects of the work, including sentence structure, use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation? What elements determine **B**-level work? Was the **B** grade a measure of Henry's progress from where he was in English composition at the last grading period, or of his achievement compared to others in the group on the final test? The **B** on Henry's report does not answer the questions.

Do the same marks represent equivalent achievement when issued by different teachers? For example, would the **B** grade of Henry Rogers have been an **A** or a **C** if it had been issued by another teacher? Research shows that the difference in marking standards among teachers is as great as a whole letter in a four-letter system and as large as 11 per cent in a percentage system. Moreover, there is variation among the standards of different schools. For instance, in a school with capable pupils the requirements are likely to be much higher than they are in a school with less able children. An **A**, for example, in the second school may be equivalent only to a **C** in the first. Obviously, the reliability of grades is not indicated by the marks themselves and pupils, parents, and even teachers have no way of interpreting what the symbols mean or of determining what faith to put in them.

Certainly, part of the difficulty with understanding what marks mean is because a single index is being used to describe a multiple outcome. A single index will give an intelligent indication only of a unit outcome or achievement, or of several outcomes which are identical. The probability is slight that the outcomes would be identical in so complicated a process as the education of a child. Moreover, the achievement of the child in any subject area such as arithmetic is not limited to a single outcome. For example, if the pupil is highly accurate in certain arithmetic processes and is inaccurate in others, one mark, even though it is an average, does not indicate the differences in achievement.

The competitive marking system is based upon the assumption that the ability and opportunity of all pupils are equivalent. The assumption is, in fact, the foundation of the motivating force underlying the traditional marking system. The system is geared to the business of comparing one pupil's achievement with that of the others, but not of seeking to get the pupil to work up to the level of his ability. The inherent unfairness in the system is related to the obvious falseness of the underlying basic assumption. Certainly, no two pupils are alike in ability and background for academic achievement, and of those who differ greatly, the slow ones can never achieve at the high level of the others no matter how great an effort is exerted. The situation is analo-

gous to requiring a group to jump over a high-jump bar set at a fairly high level. Those who do not have the ability will never be able to clear the bar and thus are doomed to constant failure no matter how hard they try to make the jump.

Some students of teaching assume that a highly competitive grading system effectively prepares for adult life, because competition is believed to be a basic force in adult living. In the first place, it may be said that training children to desire to win at the expense of others is not a desirable educational goal. As pointed out earlier, the competition of unequals is unfair, is a violation of sound mental hygiene, and does not recognize the principles of individual differences. Those children who receive high marks may find them to become their sole means of gaining status in the group. Moreover, they may become intellectual snobs. On the other hand, those children who are not academically capable and who consistently receive low marks do not become active competitors for long. They soon learn that they are going to lose every time and begin to concentrate on saving face and reinforcing their concept of self.

The school, however, does not properly fulfill its role by creating an environment of false security in which children become unable to adjust adequately to reality. There is ample opportunity for the application of competition in the school program. There is nothing undesirable in teaching children to work hard and play hard to win according to the rules. And there is nothing wrong in winning. What is needed is proper orientation and emphasis in the training afforded children along the lines indicated. Boys and girls need to learn that others can perform some activities and develop some skills in ways which they themselves cannot. Such realizations are properly made the bases of wholesome respect for others, rather than elements of envy or self-pity. Furthermore, children need aid in discovering the activities they can learn to perform well and the skills they can develop to acceptable levels of achievement. The knowledge of such aspects of personality provides strong motivation for many boys and girls and assists them in forming a concept of self that is acceptable and wholesome.

The experimentation which has been done reveals no quick, easy, and simple solutions to the problems of marking. The efforts have revealed a need to concentrate upon the inherent nature of the evaluation of pupil progress, and not upon the extrinsic devices and means usually used to approximate an estimation of achievement. The important question, then, is not whether to use percentages, letter grades, or descriptive terms but what is the character of the evaluation to be made. Fundamentally, the problems of marking which are summarized in the foregoing statements are not problems concerning which symbols to use. Rather, they are problems basically concerned

with the needs and abilities of boys and girls, the objectives of the educational program, and the progress pupils have made toward achieving their goals.

Intelligent marking by the student teacher will be done when he understands the needs, abilities, and interests of his pupils, when he identifies the purposes (changes in behavior) which are to be achieved through the activities and experiences provided, and when he determines the progress made by pupils in acquiring the desired changes in behavior (purposes and objectives). Probably, no single mark or system of grading is adequate—or best. Perhaps a combination of factors, as well as a differentiation of the component elements of changed pupil behavior, is required for adequate evaluation of the progress a pupil makes in school.

68. Readiness Is the Basis of Promotion.

If the curriculum of the school were based upon, and developed in terms of, the needs, interests, and abilities of boys and girls, students of teaching would have no problems of marking or promotion. That is to say, if going to school meant for pupils participation in educational experiences organized in a broad, unified series about basic needs, provided without time and subject-matter restrictions, then grades, failures, and promotions would have no place. The reason they would have no place is that children would be learning, developing, growing, and maturing in a continuous, progressive pattern especially designed to meet their needs and developed in terms of their abilities.

The ideal outlined above probably has never been achieved—or even closely approximated—in American education. Many educators believe that it never can be achieved as long as the graded school is maintained, at least in its present organizational pattern. If there were no next grade, then there would be no need to fail or promote a pupil. He would merely continue to work to obtain the goals determined by his educational needs. The primary-unit plan and the intermediate-unit plan are organized basically upon the idea of continuous pupil progress, and thus represent an approach to the situation indicated in the foregoing statements. Such plans are in operation in a number of places, including Wichita, Kansas, Provo, Utah, Corona, California, Tampa, Florida and Marblehead, Massachusetts.

The primary-unit includes the first three grades usually found in the elementary school. If the kindergarten is a part of the school system, it usually is included. Thus, the unit embraces a three-year or four-year ungraded organizational arrangement. In four years a child normally moves through a unit which includes the kindergarten and first three grades. The slow learning child usually finishes the unit in five years. If

the organizational plan includes the intermediate grades of four, five, and six, the average time of completion for a pupil is three additional years, and the slow learner usually takes four years to finish the work.

Probably some types of core programs are the best approaches which have been made at the secondary level to achieve the advantages of a continuous-progress, ungraded organizational pattern. Especially is this true in those programs which have eliminated subject-matter departmentalization and compartmentalization and have organized work around the persistent problems and imperative needs of youth.

It must be recognized, however, that the primary-unit, the intermediate-unit, the core program, or other organizational arrangements do not solve instructional problems caused by the inability of teachers and curriculums to meet the varying needs of pupils. All that such patterns of organization can do is to broaden the limits within which the teachers work. It still remains for students of teaching to master the art of fitting instruction to the individual child.

Similarly, it may be said that conventional marking and promotional practices do not solve the basic problems of instruction. They are merely means of stimulating pupils to do what the school wants them to do and of motivating them to exert real effort in doing it. In actual practice, marking systems and promotional policies tend to contribute to problems of classification and placement and protect inadequate curriculums and ineffective instruction. The results of studies show that failure or non-promotion do not have the stimulating power and positive motivational effect on achievement that is claimed for them. As a matter of fact, it has been demonstrated that the motivational effect of promotion far exceeds that of failure. Moreover, it is known that pupils are not motivated by failure unless they understand the reasons why they failed and know what to do to improve and to avoid failure in the future.

The answer, then, to the basic question, when should a pupil be promoted, lies in an intelligent understanding and application of the fundamental processes of determining the common and individual needs of boys and girls and of providing the kind of program necessary to meet the needs which have been discovered. Any sound plan of carrying out the proposal would regard promotion as dependent upon readiness to perform the next step necessary to meet the need or reach the desired goal. Failure would be limited, primarily, to the refusal to perform adequately any reasonable assignment or task upon which the child and teacher had agreed and which was understood and accepted by the pupil as the next desirable thing to do.

Any intelligent method or system of evaluation recognizes the existence of individual variation among children in their

physical, emotional, social, and intellectual capacities, traits, and abilities. It is known, for example, that when children enter the first grade, they may differ as much as four years in reading readiness. By the time they have reached the fifth grade, less than half of a given group are at "fifth grade" reading level, and the others are scattered above and below that norm. The truth is that there is a wide range of ability which often reaches a six-year span in any particular grade, despite the promotional policy of the school. Certainly it may be observed that the conventional system of marking and promoting pupils has not reduced the range of abilities to be found in any one grade. No scheme of promotion alone can solve the basic problem of meeting the range of needs resulting from individual differences in rate of growth and maturation.

Basically, the school should provide the type of environment for children at different levels of maturity with which they can interact to achieve optimum growth and development in desirable directions. Problems of promoting children from one type of environment to another are concerned with determining when they can no longer profit from the environment of the present situation and need to be moved into the next. In other words, the suggestion provides a continuous-progress pattern. Under the proposed plan, moving a child from the lower elementary to the intermediate, for example, depends upon his ability to continue to profit from the environment of the lower level or his need to be placed in the situation of the intermediate unit. Similarly, in the secondary school, pupils should be moved into and out of the environments of different levels in terms of their needs, interests, and abilities to profit by their present situation and the conditions of the next. Readiness for the environment of the next situation is the basis of promotion.

It is apparent that conventional plans of promotion and marking do not satisfactorily: stimulate pupils to exert greater efforts, inform either parents or children about their progress and success in school, reduce variability within grades, and produce better adjustment. In light of the conditions, the student of teaching might well question whether the usual concept of "promotion" is adequate. Certainly questions may be raised in terms of the school's obligation to accept children at the age of five or six and to promote their optimum development in desirable directions over a period normally covering twelve years. Any concept, plan, or condition which clearly opposes the fulfillment of the school's obligation is questionable.

69. Improvement of the Child's School Life Is the Reason for Reporting to Parents.

It is important that the student of teaching clarify his thinking concerning the basic function of reporting pupil progress to

parents. Only as the student sees clearly the purposes of reporting can he develop and use devices which adequately implement the function. The time-honored function of reports to parents is to convey to them the nature of what their offspring are doing in school and the teacher's best estimate of how well the tasks are being accomplished. Coupled with the traditional function of school reports have been several other purposes, including developing school support, determining recommendations for promotion, improving the educational results of pupils, assisting teachers in becoming acquainted with pupils, and improving the confidence of parents and the public in the school.

The concept presented in the principle under discussion includes more in the way of purposes to be served by reports to parents than a single job of conveying information. Certainly, informing parents is basic to reporting to them, but what is wanted is an interactive exchange of information between parents and teachers—the home and the school. Efforts are directed toward involving parents in the making of judgments regarding the child's welfare and progress in school. A reporting system which improves the child's school life enlists the co-operation of parents in guiding the experiences of children, deals with values which are understood and appreciated by pupils, parents, and teachers, and reports on various aspects of the school program, so that the parent sees his child—as a member of a group and as individual—benefiting by the strengths of the school and being affected by its needs.

In Principle 30, Chapter V, it was declared that the objectives of conventional report cards and informal narrative reports, of the school are best defined in terms of component behavioral outcomes which are meaningful to pupils, parents, and teachers. It was further stated that the curriculum should be composed of the experiences and activities provided and directed by the school to achieve its objectives. Thus, the experiences and activities in which pupils engage in school are provided to produce changes in their behavior in terms of the desired outcomes expressed in the objectives. The function of reports of pupil progress, then, is to show the amount and nature of the changes taking place in the behavior of pupils and to indicate ways in which parents and teachers may help improve the children's school life.

Perhaps an example will help to clarify what is meant. The report form of the Fayette County, Kentucky, schools for grades three to six lists the objectives for the various areas of the curriculum in terms of behavioral outcomes. To illustrate, for English the following outcomes are listed :

1. Uses good form in all written work.
2. Expresses ideas well in writing.

3. Expresses ideas well orally.
4. Speaks clearly and correctly.²

Through the experiences and activities provided, children will have opportunity to learn good form in written work, to express ideas orally and in writing, and to learn to speak clearly and correctly. The purpose of the report to parents is to show how well the children are learning to perform the desired activities and to indicate approaches toward improvement. In other words, at the beginning of the term, where were John and Mary in their ability to express ideas well orally? Where are they now? How much has their behavior changed in the area of good oral expression? Hence, how much progress has been made? What possible improvement is indicated? Thus, the significant information which the reports convey is concerned with the character of the achievement by children of the behavioral outcomes which are understood and appreciated by pupils, parents, and teachers. In addition, the reports include suggestions for a program of action centered about the pupil's needs.

In attempting to overcome the weaknesses and difficulties of conventional report cards and informal narrative reports, check-list-type reports are issued by some schools. Behavioral outcomes are listed for each area of the curriculum and provision is made for placing check marks in appropriate spaces opposite the items to indicate the teacher's evaluation of the pupil's progress. Instead of writing, "Is dependable and accepts responsibility," the teacher merely places a check mark opposite that item and in an appropriate column to indicate the nature of the evaluation. Columnar headings usually include such qualifying expressions as "Satisfying," "Is Improving," or "Needs to Improve." The report form used in grades three to six of the Fayette County, Kentucky, school is of the type described. The inside pages of the form are shown in Figure 3. In addition to the check lists, the report blank, which is in booklet form, contains space for comments by teachers and parents.

Informal and prearranged conferences held both in the home and the school are commonly used methods of acquainting parents with the growth and behavior of their children. Since the teacher-parent conferences are centered upon the pupil's progress and needs, it is usually best to have both parents present. It is not usually necessary to have the child present and sometimes it is best that he be absent. It is wise to control the length of the conference period carefully. Experience shows that a conference of fifteen or twenty minutes duration is most effective. Adequate professional data which is readily available is a prime requisite for a successful conference.

2. Fayette County Schools, Lexington, Kentucky, *Report to Parents, Grades 3-6*.

The following suggestions which have been used by one group of experienced teachers to improve their conferences are listed as aids to the student of teaching in preparing to confer with parents and in assisting others in conferring with them.

1. Listen to the parents in the conference. Give them the opportunity to talk freely. This will provide data which may not be available otherwise.
2. Complete confidence is required of each participant. Some parents may require the same sympathetic understanding as do children.
3. Be very cautious about making broad generalizations regarding the child; use a professional approach. Do not make it easy to be misquoted.
4. Do not offer any criticisms of outside-of-school practices until the parent is ready to receive and use them in a constructive way.
5. It is unethical to criticize another teacher in discussions with parents. There is a proper place for this action, if it ever becomes necessary.
6. Watch the time element. Do not spend too much time on one point.
7. Be sure each parent is aware of the purposes of the conference.
8. Summarize carefully.
9. Use the conference period to make the parents feel that "your" school is "their" school. Invite co-operation through your attitude and by direct request.
10. In case of unusual criticism of the school or school program, request the parent to be specific. Arrange for another conference period for the parent with the school administrator.
11. Make a written report on the conference. File the material in the child's folder.
12. It is usually better to have shorter conferences and to have them more often.
13. Especially in the first conference it is better not to exert pressure in achieving objectives. Move slowly.
14. Watch your voice, tension level, and humor.
15. Allow the conference situation to develop normally. Within a conference period, objectives are needed but it is better that they not be so distinct as to make you feel that direct teaching of the parents is necessary.
16. Plan a follow-up report to the parents on plans discussed in the conferences.³

Bringing parents and teachers together is good practice because the misinterpretation and misunderstanding of the child's status is reduced to a minimum. Emphasis is placed upon the total growth of the child in a much more convincing manner than is possible in written reports. Parents' understanding of

3. Adapted from Harris, Fred E., *Three Persistent Educational Problems: Grading, Promoting, and Reporting to Parents*, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, 26 (September, 1953), pp. 60-61.

their children is improved through the specific helps and aids to progress which are given by the teachers. Through conferences teachers are assisted in developing a better understanding and appreciation of the home situation and background of the child than conventional reports make possible. Face-to-face contacts of parents and teachers provide many avenues for strengthening home and school relationships.

One of the newer practices in reporting to parents which appears to have promise is the annual summary report. The reports are made at the end of the school term in the form of summaries of the activities, the experiences, the understandings, the knowledge, the skills, the nature of the instructional materials, and the ways of working which were involved in the work with the children during the year. An important feature of some annual summary reports is a listing of the ways in which the program helps to get the children ready for the next year's experiences. In order to illustrate the type of report described in the foregoing statements, an annual summary report is presented in Appendix A of this volume. Reports may be sent to parents at fixed calendar periods or at other times determined by the divisions of the school year, such as months, six-week periods, or semesters.

PROBLEMS

1. Define measurement and evaluation. Show how the processes differ.
2. Prepare essay- and objective-type tests of the areas of work you are teaching.
3. Analyze the common criticisms of essay- and objective-type tests.
4. Select several pupils exhibiting different problems, abilities, interests, and achievements. Establish a base line for each from which progress may be measured. Evaluate the progress each has made by applying the most appropriate methods and techniques.
5. Develop a system of grading and marking that adequately reveals the progress made by the different pupils of Problem 4.

Building Relationships

TEACHING at its best is a co-operative enterprise in which many persons participate. Not only does the teacher work with pupils, administrators, and parents, but he is also closely identified with fellow teachers in his own school and in other schools as well. In his relationships with each of these groups and the individuals composing the groups, the good teacher strives to gain the confidence and understanding of all concerned. To achieve these ends requires a considerable degree of skill; such skill can be gained by the student teacher through actual participation in experiences involving relationships with others.

70. Participation in Various Faculty and Student Activities Is a Part of Student Teaching.

Many student teachers feel that the student-teaching day is completed when the last class bell rings. A realistic look at actual teaching, however, will reveal that many of the most important activities in the life of the teacher—and the pupil, too—take place after the close of school. Among these activities and responsibilities are such things as faculty meetings, professional association sessions, parent-teacher group meetings, athletic events, social events, and various other types of co-curricular activities. Every one of these is important in the development of good teachers.

71. The Student Teacher Learns Administrative-Supervisory-Teaching Relationships.

One of the most important aspects of teaching and one of the things which will make the greatest difference in the degree

of success enjoyed by a teacher is his ability to understand his place in the total personnel organization of the school and system in which he works. These understandings and skills are not developed in isolation from other aspects of teaching, but rather are developed concurrently with many other skills and abilities.

Many opportunities will be available in good student-teaching situations so that student teachers may participate in salary study committees, curriculum study groups, and other activities of a similar nature which will assist in developing fuller understandings of desirable relationships.

72. The Prospective Teacher Gets Acquainted with Professional Organizations and Professional Literature.

Members of the teaching profession are realizing more and more the importance of having pride in and respect for their calling. This attitude necessitates teachers taking a courageous stand in advocating and defending programs which they think are right. It should be realized that the indifference of some members to professional problems has had a negative effect upon the public. The whole concept of educational leadership depends upon the co-operation and participation of teachers in professional affairs. There are many leading thinkers in education who believe that educators have for too long a time abdicated their right to make their maximum contribution to the progress of the school program. While it is true that the schools belong to the people and, therefore, the people have some voice in the management and program of the schools, it is equally important to remember that the citizens are entrusting the schools to a professionally prepared group of teachers, supervisors, and administrators. These professional educators have a sacred obligation to develop the best possible program for the pupils and for our society. Such action cannot result from waiting to be pushed around at the whim of the community; positive action calls for professional leadership and statesmanship which takes the community as a partner in a co-operative enterprise. For these reasons professional organizations are essential to a strong public school program.

Occasionally the new teacher may ask himself—or he may be asked by another person—"Why should one belong to professional organizations?" Although there are many other reasons which might be advanced, the most important reasons for professional membership are :

1. To assist the teacher to improve teaching conditions, including salary improvement, leave provisions, and so forth.
2. To acquaint new teachers with the research and achievements of other persons in the profession.
3. To provide teachers with an organ of expression.
4. To provide opportunities for better public relations.
5. To make it possible for teachers to have more faith and pride in, and respect for, their profession.

73. The Student Teacher Identifies Himself with the Community in Which He Works.

The concept of teaching upon which this book is based would almost demand that the teacher take an active part in community activities and in the determination of the experiences to be provided by the school. The teacher is a link between the school and the community, and he should realize that the community in which a school is located is the center of the world for the youth who attend that school. As such, the community should be the laboratory for the pupil and the teacher. In order that the teacher may understand the community most fully, he should identify himself closely with it. The teacher should be keenly aware of problems of local significance in business, labor, agriculture, and industry, for teacher-community relationships depend to a large degree upon the ability of the teacher to talk the language of the community and its members. Superintendents, principals, and board members are becoming more cognizant of the importance of the new teacher's being an adaptable person who can work effectively with the community and its interests. The teacher who "stands off" and does not participate actively in the affairs of the community is often viewed with suspicion or distrust, and his effectiveness in the classroom and in other school activities is decreased considerably.

The teacher should capitalize upon every possible opportunity to get acquainted with his community and its folkways, customs, and mores. Through these acquaintanceships, the teacher can find means to utilize the community agencies and resources to the fullest extent in his teaching. Recent studies reveal the lack of use, even by teachers in some of the so-called "better schools," of such agencies as the Soil Conservation Service, the Forestry Service, civic clubs, church organizations, and industrial organizations. Lack of information concerning these services accounts in large measure for the fact that they are not used to the extent that they should be.

Each time a teacher makes an effective contact through a community organization, he strengthens himself as a teacher, adds stature and prestige to his school, and makes a real contribution to the community of which he is a most important part.

74. Prospective Teachers Learn to Become Working Partners with Parents.

The parents of the boys and girls in school represent one of the richest sources of aid and assistance which any teacher can have. Through the parents the teacher has a fine opportunity to rediscover the needs of the boys and girls. Teachers should remain continually alert to possibilities for promoting contacts with parents. When a father or mother calls at the school to enter a child, to ask for information, to make a complaint, or

for one of many other reasons, the situation offers an excellent chance to interest the parent in the school program and to make him understand that he is a vital part of that program. The understanding teacher can make a parent a partner in the educational enterprise. Through the building of these relationships, the school is better enabled to learn the views of the parents and community relative to what the children of the community need and what the school can do to meet the needs.

Feelings of co-operation and partnership cannot be one-sided in nature. The parents must be given real reason to feel that the teacher is interested in them and in their children. The teacher who "uses" parents or merely puts on a show of affectation will not long have the respect and the co-operation of the parents. To put friendship and co-operation on a sound, working basis, the teacher will find it necessary to try to understand the parents and their interests just as he would the pupils. These understandings will develop after parents and teachers have had the opportunity to visit together in small groups or, better still, individually. Home visits or small, informal gatherings in the classroom after school are excellent devices for getting better acquainted with the parents. Such visits also serve to give the parent a clear understanding of the work of the school and the purposes of the particular class in which the child may be for the year.

If teachers expect parents and the community in general to support the educational program, all must share the personal satisfaction involved in the development of that program's purposes, direction, and evaluation. This idea should serve as a basic principle of successful and human relations. From this point of view it should be obvious that the teacher cannot afford to overlook the parents in the planning, direction, and evaluation of the school program. No person in the world is more important to the parent than the child in the school. The teacher can use this interest with excellent results if the time is taken to develop a real partnership with parents. Nothing could be more important to the teacher, the parent, or the pupil.

PROBLEMS

1. One of the most potent factors in successful teaching is parent co-operation. Develop ideas which could be used in a meeting with the parents of the pupils in your class. What would you tell them about the work which is being conducted by the group, the methods employed, and other matters of importance?
2. Attend meetings of some in-service groups which may be studying curriculum problems, salary schedules, or some similar topic of interest. Note the procedures employed

in the meetings and the relationships which develop. How would you suggest that some of the problems under consideration be attacked and solved?

3. Why do administrators, supervisors, and teachers need to have opportunities to associate in various types of situations? What are some problems which deserve co-operative consideration? How can the problems be solved by groups with different responsibilities?
4. To what organizations or groups in your community would you look for assistance in building better relationships with the schools? Outline a procedure which could be utilized in working toward this objective.

Evaluating Student Teaching

EVALUATION is an integral part of the student-teaching experience. Conceived as a basic function of student teaching, evaluation implies more than objective measurement of student achievement. Too often what is called evaluation of the student-teaching experience is only the measurement of activities performed, skills acquired, and knowledge gained. In reality, evaluation is concerned with the value, nature, and direction of the development of student teachers in relation to objectives based upon the growth needs of the prospective teachers themselves.

75. Effective Evaluation Is Functional.

Effective evaluation results in the improvement of the student-teaching experience. Actually, there is no other reason for evaluation to be performed than to bring about improved activities and experiences for studies of teaching. In order to accomplish its purpose fully, evaluation must become, as has been indicated, an integral part of the student-teaching experience itself.

While it seems necessary to evaluate the student teacher if the supervising teacher is actually to function properly and effectively, many students dread the process because they fear the results will jeopardize their chances of successfully completing the experience and of securing a desirable position. The first step, then, in evaluating the effectiveness of the work student teachers perform is to give them security by letting them have a part in formulating the criteria by which they are to be

evaluated. Successful supervising teachers report that students become responsible to themselves for the correction and improvement of shortcomings discovered through the process of evaluating their efforts in terms of their own criteria. Thus, self-improvement is more likely to become the central objective than an **A** grade given by the supervising teacher.

The modern concept of student teaching considers evaluation to be a help to the student. The evaluation process is concerned with the whole student and helps him to discover and understand his strengths and weaknesses. Student teachers want help in solving problems they recognize or those revealed to them. In helping a student with his problems, the excellent supervising teacher capitalizes upon the strong points of the prospective teacher. Especially is the emphasis of strengths effective if the student is one who is inclined to stress his own weaknesses. Placing emphasis upon strengths utilizes the greatest assets of the student in dealing with his problems. The best chance the student has to succeed in teaching is to learn to do better the activities he already does well, or has the ability to perform in an acceptable manner. In emphasizing strengths, weaknesses are not ignored. Rather, they are corrected within the framework of student activity characterized by security, confidence, success, and self-improvement.

Evaluation of student teaching is effective when it is functional. It is functional when it is conceived as an integral part of the student teaching experience, is directed at helping students solve significant problems which they recognize, and is aimed at emphasizing the strengths of students rather than their weaknesses.

76. Student Teaching Is Evaluated in Terms of Objectives.

Broadly conceived, evaluation is concerned with the achievement of the objectives and outcomes attained by students of teaching and thus, it seeks to determine the nature and direction of the changes occurring during the entire student-teaching experience. More specifically, the purpose of evaluating student teaching is to discover the effectiveness of activities and experiences designed to meet the needs of participants. The growth needs of teachers are discussed in Principle 8, Chapter II, and it is in terms of these that evaluation is made if it is to be effective. The job of teaching, however, is exceedingly complex, and the needs of the students vary considerably. For example, one may need to improve his selection and use of materials of instruction; a second, to learn to work with pupils in groups; another, to determine weaknesses and strengths of pupils; and a fourth, to evaluate the results of teaching. It is not enough that the supervising teacher recognize or even discover the needs of students. In addition, he must help them to recognize their needs themselves

if, in fact, they are to improve, because learning develops from felt needs.

In seeking to determine the specific growth needs of students, the successful supervising teacher collects and uses information of many types. A cumulative personnel record for each student serves as an effective and easy way of compiling the facts. The record includes such information as data concerning: personal background, health, marital status, school history, academic achievement, work experience, travel, military experience, experience in working with children, recreation, co-curricular activities, special talents and skills, and training in areas of major teaching interest. A blank form for use in collecting information of the type indicated concerning student teachers on the secondary level is included as Appendix B. While the form does not pretend to collect all the information a supervising teacher may desire, it indicates the kind of data considered fundamentally necessary and desirable.

Supervising teachers quite commonly place in the cumulative record the results of tests, interviews, check lists, observations, conferences, and information about the student secured by any other means. The information furnished by the completed record is found to be very helpful by supervising teachers in evaluating the student and his work because it throws light on his needs, his point of view, his reactions in certain situations, and the ways in which he works with boys and girls.

The evaluation of student teaching is ultimately made in light of how nearly the students attain the goals and objectives of the program. Specifically, the purpose of evaluating the students is to determine their needs as these relate to the educational activities which the prospective teachers direct. Mere determination of needs is not complete evaluation, because the process is not finished until future goals are established and ways of reaching them are indicated.

77. Evaluation Is Comprehensive and Co-operative.

Evaluation of an activity as complex as student teaching cannot be adequately evaluated by concentrating upon any single factor or aspect of the program. Merely to observe and appraise the work of the student teacher, important as that factor is, neglects the other important aspects of the total activity, including the nature and kinds of activities and experiences provided, the nature and content of related college work, and the influence of the supervising teacher. Such comprehensive evaluation cannot be adequately done by one individual, or through use of a single method or technique. Actually, it includes self-evaluation by the student teacher of himself and his work, self-evaluation by the supervising teacher of his part in the activity, evaluation of the student teacher by the supervising teacher, and evaluation of the program.

In a modern program of evaluation, emphasis is placed upon self-evaluation by the student teacher. The student may evaluate himself in an informal way or he may resort to rather formal, controlled methods. It seems impracticable to suggest any particular method of self-evaluation because the chief factor has to be the student's desire to evaluate himself. Certainly without a disposition to do so, no such evaluation will likely be made. One way of stimulating the student's desire to participate in self-evaluation is to supply the security referred to in Principle 75, above. The student's feeling of security may be developed by giving him a part in determining the criteria of evaluation, by helping him to see that only through his own efforts can he hope to learn to improve, and by assisting him to use objective instruments such as check lists and rating scales.

In assisting the student of teaching to view his total development, the supervising teacher may well direct the student's attention to his personal-social adjustment and the way in which he is developing as a person. The following statements indicate various aspects of behavior which may be summarized as "the teacher as a person."

1. Physical qualifications.
 - a. Has basic good health, normal or corrected vision and hearing, freedom from serious speech defects.
 - b. Is acceptable in appearance.
2. Intellectual qualifications. Possesses:
 - a. Mental ability adequate to do successful college work.
 - b. Interests in current social, political, and technological events and their implications.
 - c. Tendency to use democratic approach in settling problems and determining policy.
 - d. Adaptability in new situations, demonstrating emotional and social maturity.
3. Social viewpoint.
 - a. Actively participates in community affairs.
 - b. Desires social service opportunities.
 - c. Has high standards of personal responsibility and workmanship.
4. Effective relations with others. Demonstrates:
 - a. Intrinsic interest in others—especially children at the age level chosen for teaching.
 - b. Objectivity in personal relationships; evincing personal adjustment.
 - c. Effective group leadership and ability to organize and carry on group processes.
 - d. Promotes personal adjustment of pupils.
5. Personal-social adequacy.
 - a. Follows acceptable standards in use of language.
 - b. Observes social amenities.
 - c. Has stable and enduring consummatory interests promoting social and personal adjustment.

- d. Respects and understands the community expectations as to social and moral behavior.¹

The modern concept of the evaluation of student teaching includes much more than an effort to evaluate the prospective teacher as a person. It is felt, therefore, that a statement of teaching competence will help to elaborate the function of student teaching and give direction to self-evaluation by the student. The following statement is intended to indicate the kinds of outcomes which may be expected in the behavior of successful teachers.

I. Provides for the learning of students.

A. Uses psychological principles of learning.

1. Uses effective and continuing motivation.
 - a. Recognizes and makes use of the interests, abilities and needs of students.
 - b. Uses the experiences of students and draws upon life situations and the interests inherent in subject matter.

2. Provides varied learning experiences.

3. Uses a variety of teaching procedures effectively.

B. Uses principles of child growth and development in learning situations.

1. Provides for differentiated activities and assignments to meet the needs and abilities of students.
2. Knows the health (mental and physical) status of his students and adapts activities to their needs.

C. Maintains an atmosphere in the classroom that is conducive to learning and is marked by a sense of balance between freedom and security.

1. Maintains an effective working situation.
2. Helps students increasingly to assume leadership and responsibility.
3. Provides opportunities for students to co-operate and to exercise leadership in the activities of large and small groups.
4. Provides opportunity for expression of independent critical thought with emphasis on freedom of expression and open-mindedness.

D. Plans effectively.

1. Aids the students to define worthwhile objectives for large units, daily class work, and special class activities.
2. Organizes his teaching well by choosing learning experiences, subject matter content, and materials of instruction wisely.
3. Selects and uses a wide variety of materials of instruction (for example, books, pamphlets, films, bulletin boards, flat pictures, radios, recordings, and so forth).
4. Uses resources of the school library and the community.

E. Uses varied teaching procedures.

1. Uses teaching procedures (such as group reporting, discussion, planning with pupils) designed to achieve desired purposes in teaching.
2. Builds effectively upon the students' participation in class activities.

1. Adapted from *The Evaluation of Student Teaching*, Twenty-Eighth Annual Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa., 1949, pp. 12-13.

3. Develops study skills of students.
 4. Stimulates creative activities of students.
 5. Aids the students to evaluate their own achievements.
 - F. Uses diagnostic and remedial procedures effectively.
 1. Is familiar with common diagnostic tests in his own and related fields.
 2. Constructs, administers, and interprets diagnostic tests.
 3. Uses other appropriate diagnostic procedures.
 4. Plans and uses remedial procedures.
 - G. Uses adequate procedures for evaluating the achievement of students.
 1. Uses informal evaluation procedures (anecdotal record, interview, questionnaire) for collecting and interpreting needed information.
 2. Uses standard achievement tests.
 - a. Is familiar with the more common ones in his field.
 - b. Selects, administers, and interprets the results of tests and uses them in planning.
 3. Uses teacher-made tests.
 - a. Constructs appropriate tests skillfully.
 - b. Interprets the results and uses them in planning.
 4. Keeps accurate and adequate records, such as case studies, cumulative records.
 5. Makes effective reports to students and parents concerning the progress of students in their growth.
 - H. Manages the class effectively.
 1. Plans satisfactory routine for the handling of materials, equipment, and supplies.
 2. Uses own and pupils' time effectively.
 3. Is attentive to the physical well-being of students in such matters as heating, lighting, ventilation, and seating.
- II. Counsels and guides students wisely.
- A. Uses sound psychological principles concerning the growth and development of children in guiding individuals and groups.
 1. Maintains objectivity when dealing with behavior that is aggressive and abnormal.
 2. Is sympathetic with and sensitive to students' personal and social problems, as well as their academic needs.
 3. Makes adjustments in the curriculum and other requirements in light of pupils' needs.
 4. Secures sufficient rapport with students so that they come voluntarily for counsel.
 - B. Maintains effective relationships with parents.
 1. Explains the needs, abilities, interests, and problems of the students to their parents.
 2. Obtains co-operation from parents in helping students with their problems.
 - C. Collects and uses significant counseling data.
 1. Administers aptitude and intelligence tests.
 2. Interprets the results of such tests.
 3. Uses results collected in counseling with students.
 4. Keeps research suitable for guidance.

- D. Uses suitable counseling procedures.
 - E. Maintains appropriate relations with guidance specialists, recognizing their role, and the limitations of his own skill and ability.
- III. Aids students to understand and appreciate our cultural heritage.
- A. Organizes the class room for effective democratic living.
 - B. Directs individuals and groups in significant life applications of classroom learnings.
 - 1. Uses subject fields to develop understanding of social, economic, and political problems.
 - 2. Develops an understanding of the wide significance of various fields of subject matter.
 - C. Draws on his own background of experience to elicit the cultural growth of individuals and groups.
 - D. Helps students to know and to apply in their daily lives the democratic principles which are rooted deep in our historical development.
- IV. Participates effectively in the activities of the school.
- A. Plans co-operatively the means of achieving educational objectives.
 - 1. Shares effectively in curricular revision and is able to evaluate progress toward attaining educational objectives.
 - a. Defines objectives clearly.
 - b. Collects data efficiently and draws appropriate conclusions from them.
 - c. Employs appropriate remedial procedures.
 - 2. Shows flexibility in modifying his plans and procedures to fit with those of the entire school.
 - B. Assumes his share of the responsibility for school activities.
 - 1. Carries out effectively the administrative responsibilities delegated to him.
 - 2. Participates in planning and administering extracurricular activities.
 - C. Maintains harmonious personal relations with his colleagues.
- V. Assists in maintaining good relations between the school and the rest of the community.
- A. Acquaints himself with available community resources and uses them in classroom activities.
 - B. Obtains the co-operation of parents in school activities.
 - C. Aids in defining and solving community problems.
 - 1. Helps in defining community problems and in developing awareness of them in students and parents.
 - 2. Draws on available and appropriate resources within the school in attacking community problems.
 - D. Takes part in community affairs and projects.
 - E. Observes professional ethics in discussing school problems particularly with lay persons.
- VI. Works on a professional level.
- A. Gives evidence of the social importance of the profession to parents, students, and other members of the profession.
 - B. Adheres to a professional code of ethics.
 - C. Contributes to the profession by membership in professional organizations and participation in their activities.

- D. Assumes responsibility for his own professional growth by planning an appropriate program for professional betterment.
- 1. Continues professional study through courses, lectures, institute meetings, professional reading, and other activities.
- E. Aids in supervising student teachers and in the orientation and induction of beginning teachers.²

In Principle 3, Chapter II, it is stated that one of the basic growth needs of student teachers is "to learn how to work democratically with others." The ability to establish rapport is essential in working with others and in teaching the habits and skills of democratic living. The following criteria suggest the kinds of questions which the student may use as a basis for evaluating his work in terms of group rapport.

1. Is there evidence that congenial relations exist between the teacher and all members of the group?
2. Do all members of the group exhibit a genuine respect and friendship for their fellow members?
3. Is there evidence that students place the welfare of the group above personal ambitions?
4. Does the teacher make conscious effort to use the techniques and procedures for developing cohesive group rapport?
5. Do all members of the group find security and acceptance within the group?
6. Is there evidence that the teacher accepts all members of the group regardless of their race, religion, age, aptitude, ability, interest, vocational choice, home background, handicaps, sex, or educational plans?
7. Do all members of the group share the responsibility for leadership?
8. Is change the result of careful group planning rather than arbitrary directions?
9. Are members of the group showing growth in the capacity for self-direction in relation to co-operative practices?
10. Are the interests of all members of the group recognized when group activities are being planned?
11. Are the goals sought in learning experiences common to all members of the group?
12. Are evaluation procedures developed and shared co-operatively by all members of the group?
13. Do members of the group grow in their ability to understand themselves and others?
14. Is there evidence of increased interest, increased effort, and increased growth as a result of group rapport?
15. Is the morale of the group high?
16. Do all members of the group show evidence of satisfactory emotional adjustment within the group?

2. Adapted from material developed by the California Council on Teacher Education. *The Evaluation of Student Teaching*, Twenty-Eighth Annual Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa., 1949, pp. 7-11.

17. Is there evidence of growth on the part of all members of the group in the skills of working co-operatively, in sharing in decision making, in working toward group goals, and in the skills of democratic living?
18. Do members of the group show evidence of willingness to utilize intelligence rather than force in the solution of problems?
19. Does the teacher know and understand the personal problems of all members of the group?
20. Is there evidence that members of the group are developing a sympathetic understanding of their classmates?
21. Are students developing attitudes of helpfulness in behalf of others?
22. Is the relationship between the class group and the school as a whole congenial and harmonious?
23. Is there evidence that loyalties to the class group do not inhibit constructive relationships between groups or between members of different groups?
24. Do members of the group demonstrate capacity for and habits of group discipline?
25. Are students permitted to form groups or subgroups in terms of their interests, purposes, and friendships?
26. Is there evidence that habits of behavior and conduct exhibited within the class group contribute constructively to relationships with other groups?

The foregoing statements of the aspects of the behavior of the teacher as a person, the competencies of a successful teacher, and the elements involved in establishing group rapport may be used in many ways in evaluating the activities and experiences of student teaching. It is suggested that the student utilize the statements fully in a program of self-evaluation in order to determine his strong and weak points and to make plans for improvement. It is further suggested that the supervising teacher consider the statements as he evaluates the work of the student. In addition, the statements may serve as focal points for co-operative evaluation efforts by both the student and the supervising teacher. Finally, the criteria may furnish guidance in the development of various check lists, rating scales, progress charts, and other evaluative instruments and devices.

The following check list is presented as an aid to the student and supervising teachers in their efforts to co-operate in evaluating the student teacher and his work. In using the check list, draw a circle around the number which most nearly designates the quality of the item under consideration. The values of the numbers are: Inferior, 1; Below Average, 2; Average, 3; Above Average, 4; and Superior, 5.

1. *The student teacher as a person:* appearance; dress; speech; general cultural pattern; initiative and resourcefulness; emo-

tional stability; health and vitality; effect on others; warmth and force of personality.

1	2	3	4	5
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2. *The student teacher as a scholar:* in broad general fields; in the effectiveness of his control of his area of subject-matter specialization; in the ability to secure further needed mastery; in his command of resources.

1	2	3	4	5
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3. *The student teacher as a classroom teacher:* his concept of teaching; his understanding of methods and procedures as applied in teaching; his competency in planning; his use of materials; his relation with children; his understanding of child growth and development, and his ability to use such understanding in the teaching situation; his understanding and use of the laws of learning and of motivation; his skill in using wise methods of evaluation; his operational level of the understanding and the use of democratic principles.

1	2	3	4	5
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4. *The student teacher as a guide and counselor:* sympathetic understanding of children; ability to care for children's needs; ability to collect and analyze data regarding children; ability to establish good working relations with parents; ability to gain and respect children's confidence.

1	2	3	4	5
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5. *The student teacher as a manager:* of routine; of co-curricular activities; of the classroom to the extent that the emotional climate of the classroom is conducive to effective learning and pleasant living.

1	2	3	4	5
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6. *The student teacher as a member of the profession:* practices a sound code of ethical behavior; is interested in and values the social significance of the profession; assumes responsibility for his professional growth through reading, observation, and other avenues for continued growth.

1	2	3	4	5
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7. *The student teacher as a member of the community:* is concerned with the community setting which affects the children; discovers and uses community resources; is aware of problems and is willing to aid in their solution.

1	2	3	4	5
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It is believed that the greatest benefit in using the check list may be derived from the joint efforts of both the student and supervising teachers. Conferences aimed at developing understandings of the items and of their application to specific situations are exceedingly helpful. During a period of time the student and supervising teacher may make separate evaluations of the student and his work. At the end of the evaluation period, they may compare findings, estimate progress and needs for improvement, and decide what further efforts are required. By drawing lines which connect the encircled numbers on the check-list sheet, a profile graph may be made of the status of the stu-

dent for the period covered by the evaluation. * Comparison of a series of such profiles results in a progress chart of the growth and development of the student of teaching.

In a teacher-learning situation, the teacher is the most important element aside from the learner himself. Student teaching is essentially a teaching-learning situation, in which the "teacher" is the supervising teacher and the "learner" is the student teacher. Thus, the supervising teacher is in reality a "teacher of teachers" and it is, therefore, highly essential that he function on a high level of effectiveness in directing the experiences of the student of teaching.

Only through an efficient process of evaluation can the effectiveness of the supervising teacher be analyzed and increased. Obviously, he is constantly being evaluated even though he may not realize it. Each day the students of teaching are appraising him, observing his attitude, watching how he works, and reacting to his suggestions in terms of what he does and the impressions he makes upon them. Certainly, he will be stronger if he knows his own strengths and weaknesses. Thus, it is highly desirable and most essential that he review periodically his actual work with students. The criteria employed should cover, insofar as possible, all phases of the supervising teacher's activity, and provide for the collection of a wide variety of evidence.

The following factors are some to which the supervising teacher will likely give attention in evaluating himself :

1. Do I give the student teachers a share in deciding what to do?
2. How general is the participation of student teachers in the formulation of policies which affect them?
3. Does participation of the student teachers in group work result in desirable action?
4. Am I giving enough attention to growth in the techniques of co-operative planning and action?
5. Do I let student teachers know in advance about changes which affect them?
6. How has the "our" attitude been developed?
7. Have I been successful in convincing students of the importance of their student-teaching experiences?
8. Have I used praise discriminatingly?
9. In what ways have I attempted to discover and to capitalize upon the strengths of student teachers?
10. Do I know of special work the students of teaching are doing?
11. Do I let student teachers know how they are getting along?
12. Have students of teaching been made to feel professionally secure?
13. Do student teachers desire to improve enough to try different methods?
14. How have I helped students of teaching to become self-directive?

15. Am I more likely to begin working with student teachers on their problems or on my own?
16. Do I recognize and provide for differences among student teachers and their needs?
17. Are student teachers given a chance to save face?
18. Do I recognize the uniqueness of student teachers' personalities?
19. Do I recognize that there is no universally successful teaching technique?
20. Do I maintain self-control in the face of tactless remarks?
21. Do I admit mistakes when I am shown to be wrong?
22. Do I get the facts concerning an error and weigh and decide them before taking action?
23. Are student teachers properly oriented to the school, the community, and the job to which they are assigned?
24. Do all concerned share in the evaluation of the program of student teaching?
25. How can I help student teachers to do better those things they already do well?
26. Do I encourage student teachers to experiment with ways of working with boys and girls that are different from my own methods?

In addition to making frequent individual self-evaluations, it is important for the supervising teacher to know what the student teachers think about him and his work. It is strongly suggested, therefore, that the supervising teacher secure the reactions of the student teachers in terms of the criteria listed above. This may be done in one of several ways. For example, the student may use the criteria as a check list and apply them to the activities of the supervising teacher, revealing the results to him in a conference. On the other hand, the student and supervising teachers may use the criteria together in a conference aimed at securing the thinking of the student concerning the work of the supervising teacher. While it is recognized that the co-operative evaluation of the work of the supervising teacher by him and by the student requires a high degree of maturity and objectivity on the part of both persons, it is believed that the value of student teaching is centered in the way the students feel about it and the changes it makes in their behavior. Thus, it is important for the supervising teacher to secure the reaction of the student teacher to the activities which the former performs and to the way in which he does them.

Evaluation of the program of student teaching is as much a part of the total experience as is participation in the various activities of the program. Only those persons who have co-operatively formulated the purposes of a program of student teaching can truly evaluate the progress they have made toward

attaining the stated objectives. Evaluation, then, of the total program should be viewed by the student teacher, the supervising teacher, and the college director of student teaching as a co-operative and constructive procedure aimed at improvement of the various activities and experiences included in the whole activity of student teaching.

The plan of program evaluation currently in use in the area of secondary student teaching at the College of Education, University of Kentucky, illustrates the main features of total activity evaluation indicated in the foregoing statement. Those persons participating in the evaluation include the student teachers, the college directors, and co-ordinators of student teaching, the college instructors in related methods courses and seminars, and the supervising teachers. Basically the plan attempts to evaluate the program from two aspects. One attempt is aimed at the evaluation of the methods courses and seminars, while the other is directed at the nature and value of the actual experiences in the laboratory schools. Actually, the two attempts are not as unrelated and separate as the following written descriptions may indicate.

The methods courses and seminars are evaluated in terms of evidences of growth based upon the following criteria, which are co-operatively formulated by the persons mentioned above :

1. The activities of the group are related to the needs of its members.
2. The group identifies and selects the problems studied.
3. Members of the group communicate with each other.
4. The group utilizes available resource materials.
5. Members of the group have a desirable attitude of tolerance for the opinions of others.
6. The capabilities of each group member are utilized.
7. Members of the group feel free to express differences of opinion.
8. All members of the group volunteer to participate in activities.
9. Members of the group function as a team in attacking problems.
10. Members of the group accept responsibilities to make the group function adequately.
11. The group carries accepted responsibilities to satisfactory conclusions.
12. Original thinking is encouraged and takes place.
13. The social and emotional atmosphere is conducive to group work.

The criteria are applied by student teachers in all subject fields, such as English, social studies, mathematics, and science. After the subgroups have completed their evaluations in the different fields, the results are reported to, and studied by, the total group of students, directors, co-ordinators, instructors, and supervising teachers. Terminal evaluations of the methods courses and seminars are made through the co-operative action of those concerned.

The second aspect of the evaluation concerns the appraisal of the total professional laboratory experiences. The students, college personnel concerned with student teaching, and supervising teachers have formulated eleven classifications of experience as follows :

1. Professional meetings.
2. Instruction.
3. Classroom routine.
4. Co-curricular activities.
5. Observations and visitations.
6. Records.
7. Audio-visual materials and equipment.
8. Community resources.
9. School personnel.
10. Conferences.
11. Evaluation.

Each of the classifications is expanded into its detailed component activities and experiences. The student is then asked to list on a prepared form the most helpful experiences in each category and to state why he believes the items listed are valuable any significant. The reports are then compiled by laboratory schools and studied by the group of students, college personnel, and supervising teachers with a view toward evaluating the nature and value of the kinds of experiences considered to be significant.

Efforts of the personnel involved in the student-teaching program are directed toward relating the two aspects of the evaluation procedure. It is believed that the character of the whole program is improved when the activities and experiences provided in its various phases are aimed and directed at the student's attainment of the desired goals. That objective is best achieved through a redevelopment of the program based upon evaluation of all its aspects.

The basic elements of effective, comprehensive, and co-operative evaluation of the student-teaching experience include agreement upon the goals to be established as evaluative criteria, establishment of reference points or base lines from which to measure improvement, participation of all concerned in individual and co-operative efforts of evaluation, and determination of the next steps to be taken in revising the total activity according to the evaluation of it.

78. Evaluation Is a Continuous Process.

Evaluation of student teaching in the past has too often been limited to concentrated efforts applied at intervals during the experience or at its termination. In such an evaluative process,

the appraisal of the student and his work was spasmodic, and the evaluation of the activities and experiences provided for him was periodic. By contrast, the modern concept of evaluation views it as being continuous in its efforts to improve the quality, character, and direction of the total student-teaching activity. The view is held that, if evaluation is actually to improve student teaching and if the improvement is to have lasting value, then continuous efforts must be made to determine the needs to be met and the extent to which they are being met. And provisions have then to be provided for meeting them. Gradual and continuous change is a desirable characteristic of an effectively developing program of student teaching. Although the main aspects of the program may remain essentially unchanged over a period of time, the activities, experiences, and services provided and the techniques and procedures employed must be continually adapted to changing needs and conditions.

PROBLEMS

1. Formulate a concept of the evaluation of student teaching.
2. List the criteria by which the student-teaching experience should be evaluated. Review these with the supervising teacher.
3. As a student teacher, evaluate yourself and your work in terms of the criteria listed in Problem 2 and compare your results with the evaluation made by the supervising teacher. Plan a program of activity based upon the results of the co-operative evaluation.
4. Formulate a plan for capitalizing upon some strengths which you as a student teacher recognize you possess.
5. In broad outline indicate the kinds of outcomes which should be expected in the behavior of successful teachers.
6. Indicate in broad outline the criteria which the student may use as a basis for evaluating his work in terms of group rapport.
7. Indicate in broad outline the criteria which the supervising teacher should use to evaluate his work in the student-teaching program.
8. List the criteria which may be used to evaluate the student-teaching program.

APPENDIX A

The Annual Summary Report to Parents¹

THE following annual summary report is presented to illustrate one of the newer practices in reporting pupil progress to parents. It is not presented for the purpose of illustrating a *model* school program of activities and experiences at the fifth grade level, because there is no unanimity of opinion about the content of such a program. The intention is rather to show the nature of a summary-type report to parents which gives them a basis for understanding the kind of educational program the school is providing for their children.

FIFTH GRADE—LYNDON, KENTUCKY REPORT TO PARENTS

Dear Mr. and Mrs.....:

This report is the work of Bobby, his class, and teacher.

The fifth grade had an original enrollment of 36. There were 5 later enrollments and 4 withdrawals. The girls number 18 and the boys, 19.

Several different techniques have been used during the year to bring about a desirable social climate. Working on different committees, being responsible to the group for a given task, and playing together have helped to bring about a good group spirit.

During the year each child's progress has been measured according to his or her ability, maturity, and effort for the required task.

.....
Teacher

1. Report used by Mrs. Fanny Lowe, teacher, Lyndon, Kentucky, in 1952-1953. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, 26 (September, 1953), pp. 61-66.

I. During the year each child participated in some way in the following:

A. Social Life

1. Experiences in "getting along with others."
 - a. Worked on many committees.
 - b. Ate with different groups.
 - c. Chose groups to sit and work with sometimes.
 - d. Participated in games.
 - e. Co-operated with the Student Council.
2. Classes in human relations.
3. Made booklets and wrote about experiences in getting along with others.
4. Worked toward being "honest with one's self."
5. Organized a stamp club.
 - a. Anyone interested in starting a stamp collection could join.

B. Safety

1. Mr..... visited and talked with the class.
2. Secured and read free literature on safety.
3. Saw films.
4. Co-operated in fire drills.
5. Learned safety songs in music classes.
6. Worked on safety in art classes.
7. Worked with the Student Council and Patrol.
8. Observed safety rules.
9. Cleaned playground.

C. Field Trips

1. To firehouse in Lyndon.
2. To a fort in Lyndon made by boys in the class.
3. To a meat-packing house.
4. To the stockyards.
5. To Lebanon Junction on the train.
6. A trip to Frankfort, Kentucky, is planned—we shall visit:
 - a. The new Capitol.
 - b. The Old Capitol.
 - c. The Governor's Mansion.
 - d. The new State Building.
 - e. Liberty Hall.
 - f. University of Kentucky Experiment Farm.

D. Letter Writing

1. Letters to Mr.....
 - a. To thank him for our visit to the firehouse.
2. "Get-well" notes.
3. Thank-you letters.

4. Letters to Mr.....from the Stamp Club.
 5. Invitations to mothers for P.T.A. meetings.
 6. Mother's Day letters.
 7. Other practice letters.
- E. Entertaining (in our own room)*
1. Christmas party.
 2. Television party for the Inauguration.
 - a. The girls entertained the boys.
 3. A Valentine party.
 - a. Jimmy Felts put on a "Magic Show."
 4. An Easter fair.
 - a. Other rooms visited us.
 5. Mother's Day party for mothers.
 - a. Twenty-three mothers came.
- F. Lunchroom Experiences*
1. Eating with one group for six weeks then changing to another group for social rapport.
 2. Table manners.
 3. Washing hands before eating.
 4. Desirable conversation.
 5. Obeying, or carrying out, suggestions offered by the Student Council.
 6. Careful handling of dishes.
 7. Committees worked with each group to establish habits of cleanliness.
 8. Worked on being quiet in lunchroom.
 9. New foods.
- G. Science*
1. Did experiments:
 - a. Fire.
 - b. Electricity.
 - c. Plants.
 - d. Magnets.
 - e. Water wheel--wheel-and-axle pulleys.
 2. Aquarium.
 - a. Tadpole.
 - b. Goldfish.
 3. Terrarium.
 - a. Plants.
 4. Vivarium.
 5. Calendar (recorded weather).
 6. Weather books.
 7. Potted plants for mothers.

H. The Language Arts

1. Reading has been done in groups and individually. Each child has read at his own level and rate of speed. Some "choral reading" has been done this year. This provides opportunity for expression by every child. Additional reading experiences were provided through the school library. The children were given competent guidance by the librarian in the selection of books. About 2,475 books were made available to the children (many of these were made available through the Public Library).

a. The books we have read are listed below. The ones your child completed are checked. Please note these!

- (1) All Aboard for Storyland
- (2) Sails Set for Treasure Land
- (3) Looking Forward
- (4) Days and Deeds
- (5) Frontiers Old and New
- (6) On to Adventure
- (7) Merry Hearts and Bold
- (8) Engine Whistles
- (9) Child Story Reader

b. Other supplementary books were read by many children. The group, as a whole, shows more than average progress in reading.

2. Handwriting.

a. Every lesson was a writing lesson. Charts for correct writing were made from which each child evaluated his or her own writing.

3. Spelling.

- a. Spelling graphs were kept.
- b. Studied incidental words which were needed for other subjects.
- c. Studied the root words, the suffix, and the prefix.

4. Language Experiences.

- a. Much oral language.
- b. Original cards for mothers.
- c. Letter writing.
- d. Worked some with formal grammar.
- e. Did both oral and written reports from supplementary reading.

I. Number Experiences

- 1. Writing numbers and dates.
- 2. Problems concerning our trips and experiences.
- 3. Use of measurements.
- 4. Addition.

5. Subtraction.
 6. Division.
 7. Multiplication.
 8. Fractions.
- (Each of these was made meaningful through relation to social activities)

J. Music

1. There has been a special teacher for public school music and another for instrumental music. The children have had opportunities to:
 - a. Sing in groups.
 - b. Take part in glee club.
 - c. Take part in orchestra.
 - d. Listen to records.
 - e. Do rhythm games.

K. Art Experiences

1. The class has made several friezes in connection with units of work. They have worked with the following media:
 - a. Finger paint.
 - b. Chalk.
 - c. Crayons.
 - d. Papier-mache.
 - e. Paints.
 - f. Cut paper.
2. A calendar was made by a different committee for each month.
3. Several posters and pictures were made to illustrate books which were read.
4. Had several interesting exhibits.
5. Made a television show—correlating social studies with art.

L. Physical Education

1. Twenty minutes each day was given to rhythm, games, organization, and caring for play materials. During this period the children have enjoyed:
 - a. Relay races.
 - b. Singing games.
 - c. Ball games.
 - d. Group games.
 - (1) Many new games were learned.
 - e. Skills.
 - (1) Rope jumping.
 - (2) Jacks.
 - (3) Ball handling and throwing.
 - f. Tumbling.

M. Social Studies

1. Have studied the history and geography of the Americas.
 - a. Did research reading.

- b. Made maps.
- c. Saw many films.
- d. Had panel and group discussions.
- e. Had exhibits.
- f. Had free material always available.
- g. Made a television show of the early explorers.
- h. Had news reports each day.

N. Educational Status

1. The group is above average in most respects. The members show talent in music and they like to sing. Many of them play some instrument. A few of the group seem to be quite talented in art. Many of them have yet to learn the art of "listening."

APPENDIX B

Student Teacher Information Blank

STUDENT TEACHER INFORMATION BLANK¹

College of Education, University of Kentucky

During.....Semester, 196.....

THE information you provide will be used to help your supervising teacher become better acquainted with you and guide you during your student teaching activities. Please answer each of the questions as completely and as accurately as possible. You may omit any of the questions you desire to leave unanswered.

1. FULL NAME
Last First Middle Initial
2. PERMANENT ADDRESSPHONE
Street City State
3. UNIVERSITY ADDRESSPHONE
Street City State
4. PLACE OF BIRTHDATE OF BIRTH
City or County State
5. CHECK THE TYPE OF COMMUNITY IN WHICH YOU HAVE
LIVED THE MAJOR PART OF YOUR LIFE: Rural.....;
Village; Small City; Large City
6. MARITAL STATUS If Married, Number of
Children
7. FATHER'S NAME IN FULL
a. Living or DeceasedPlace of Birth
State or County

1. The blank is used with student teachers on the secondary level.

- b. Father's Education
- c. Father's Occupation
8. MOTHER'S NAME IN FULL
- a. Living or Deceased Place of Birth
State or County
- b. Mother's Education
- c. Mother's Occupation
9. NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN YOUR FAMILY OLDER THAN YOU:
- Boys Girls
- Number Younger:
Boys Girls
10. ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL FROM WHICH YOU GRADUATED, AND COLLEGES OR UNIVERSITIES ATTENDED:
- | Name of Institution | Location | Dates |
|---------------------|----------|-------|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
11. RECREATION: *Underline* each of the following in which you really like to participate. Reading, meeting and conversing with people, art, music, dancing, movies, golf, tennis, fishing, riding, hiking, skating, swimming, hunting, camping, boating, motoring, card playing, chess, photography, collections or other hobbies. Others
12. HAVE YOU EARNED ANY MONEY SINCE YOU BEGAN YOUR COLLEGE WORK? Yes.....No.....
If so, how
13. WHAT HAVE YOU DONE DURING THE PAST TWO SUMMER VACATIONS THAT HAS BEEN OF VALUE TO YOU?.....
.....
14. LIST BELOW THE EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN WHICH YOU HAVE PARTICIPATED WHILE IN COLLEGE.....
.....
15. WHAT PROFESSIONS OR OCCUPATIONS OTHER THAN TEACHING ARE YOU CONSIDERING?
16. WHAT MAGAZINES DO YOU READ REGULARLY?
a. b. c.
17. WHAT NEWSPAPERS DO YOU READ REGULARLY?
a. b. c.

18. WHAT BOOKS (OTHER THAN TEXTBOOKS) HAVE YOU READ IN THE LAST YEAR?

.....

19. EXPERIENCES IN WORKING WITH CHILDREN—other than in university education courses:

Situation	Length of Time	Place
-----------	----------------	-------

.....
.....
.....

20. WHY DO YOU WANT TO TEACH?

.....

21. TRAVEL EXPERIENCE:

Description	Time
-------------	------

.....
.....
.....

22. MILITARY EXPERIENCES

.....

23. CHECK YOUR TALENTS OR SKILLS WHICH YOU BELIEVE MAY BE ASSETS IN YOUR STUDENT TEACHING:

....PianoCookingTyping
....SingingSewingStorytelling
....ViolinCraftsOperating
....Rhythm WorkIndustrial Arts	Visual
....Driving CarLibrary Science	Equipment
....SpeechNature StudyLeading Recrea-
....First AidJournalism	tional Activities
....Home Nursing		

24. LIST ANY SPECIAL RECOGNITIONS YOU HAVE RECEIVED FOR EXCELLENCE IN SCHOOL WORK, SUCH AS HONORS, PRIZES, OR SCHOLARSHIPS.

.....

APPENDIX C

Code of Ethics of the National Education Association¹

WE the Members of the National Education Association of the United States, hold these truths to be self-evident—

- that the primary purpose of education in the United States is to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen, and improve the democracy obtained thru a representative government;
- that the achievement of effective democracy in all aspects of American life and the maintenance of our national ideals depend upon making acceptable educational opportunities available to all;
- that the quality of education reflects the ideals, motives, preparation, and conduct of the members of the teaching profession;
- that whoever chooses teaching as a career assumes the obligation to conduct himself in accordance with the ideals of the profession.

As a guide for the teaching profession, the members of the National Education Association have adopted this code of professional ethics. Since all teachers should be members of a united profession, the basic principles herein enumerated apply to all persons engaged in the professional aspects of education—elementary, secondary, and collegiate.

First Principle: The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide children, youth, and adults in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, to prepare them in the ways of democracy, and to help them to become happy, useful, self-supporting citizens. The ultimate strength of the nation lies in

1. NEA Handbook for Local and National Associations, 1954-1955, pp. 331-363.

the social responsibility, economic competence, and moral strength of the individual American.

In fulfilling the obligations of this first principle the teacher will—

1. Deal justly and impartially with students regardless of their physical, mental, emotional, political, economic, social, racial, or religious characteristics.
2. Recognize the differences among students and seek to meet their individual needs.
3. Encourage students to formulate and work for high individual goals in the development of their physical, intellectual, creative, and spiritual endowments.
4. Aid students to develop an understanding and appreciation not only of the opportunities and benefits of American democracy but also of their obligations to it.
5. Respect the right of every student to have confidential information about himself withheld except when its release is to authorized agencies or is required by law.
6. Accept no remuneration for tutoring except in accordance with approved policies of the governing board.

Second Principle: The members of the teaching profession share with parents the task of shaping each student's purposes and acts toward socially acceptable ends. The effectiveness of many methods of teaching is dependent upon co-operative relationships with the home.

In fulfilling the obligations of this second principle the teacher will—

1. Respect the basic responsibility of parents for their children.
2. Seek to establish friendly and co-operative relationships with the home.
3. Help to increase the student's confidence in his own home and avoid disparaging remarks which might undermine that confidence.
4. Provide parents with information that will serve the best interests of their children, and be discreet with information received from parents.
5. Keep parents informed about the progress of their children as interpreted in terms of the purposes of the school.

Third Principle: The teaching profession occupies a position of public trust involving not only the individual teacher's personal conduct, but also the interaction of the school and the community. Education is most effective when these many relationships operate in a friendly, co-operative, and constructive manner.

In fulfilling the obligations of this third principle the teacher will—

1. Adhere to any reasonable pattern of behavior accepted by the community for professional persons.
2. Perform the duties of citizenship, and participate in community activities with due consideration for his obligations to his students, his family, and himself.
3. Discuss controversial issues from an objective point of view, thereby keeping his class free from partisan opinions.

4. Recognize that the public schools belong to the people of the community, encourage lay participation in shaping the purposes of the school, and strive to keep the public informed of the educational program which is being provided.
5. Respect the community in which he is employed and be loyal to the school system, community, state, and nation.
6. Work to improve education in the community and to strengthen the community's moral, spiritual, and intellectual life.

Fourth Principle: The members of the teaching profession have inescapable obligations with respect to employment. These obligations are nearly always shared employer-employee responsibilities based upon mutual respect and good faith.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fourth principle the teacher will—

1. Conduct professional business thru the proper channels.
2. Refrain from discussing confidential and official information with unauthorized persons.
3. Apply for employment on the basis of competence only, and avoid asking for a specific position known to be filled by another teacher.
4. Seek employment in a professional manner, avoiding such practices as the indiscriminate distribution of applications.
5. Refuse to accept a position when the vacancy has been created through unprofessional activity or pending controversy over professional policy or the application of unjust personnel practices and procedures.
6. Adhere to the conditions of a contract until service thereunder has been performed, the contract has been terminated by mutual consent, or the contract has otherwise been legally terminated.
7. Give and expect due notice before a change of position is to be made.
8. Be fair in all recommendations that are given concerning the work of other teachers.
9. Accept no compensation from producers of instructional supplies when one's recommendations affect the local purchase or use of such teaching aids.
10. Engage in no gainful employment, outside of his contract, where the employment affects adversely his professional status or impairs his standing with students, associates, and the community.
11. Co-operate in the development of school policies and assume one's professional obligations thereby incurred.
12. Accept one's obligation to the employing board for maintaining a professional level of service.

Fifth Principle: The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. Community support and respect are influenced by

the standards of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching and other teachers.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fifth principle the teacher will—

1. Deal with other members of the profession in the same manner as he himself wishes to be treated.
2. Stand by other teachers who have acted on his behalf and at his request.
3. Speak constructively of other teachers, but report honestly to responsible persons in matters involving the welfare of students, the school system, and the profession.
4. Maintain active membership in professional organizations and, thru participation, strive to attain the objectives that justify such organized groups.
5. Seek to make professional growth continuous by such procedures as study, research, travel, conferences, and attendance at professional meetings.
6. Make the teaching profession so attractive in ideals and practices that sincere and able young people will want to enter it.

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